

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

FEBRUARY, 1934

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From a dry point by Mary Cassatt

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Mother and Baby

CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

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No. 5

The Fine Art of Discussion

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A GRADUATE student of Columbia University told me recently that he had given up his discussion group, consisting of five men, because they failed to get anywhere. Such failures are so common, that they are probably the rule, rather than the exception, among students. They are hardly less common among older people. How often are public discussions disappointing!

Yet, without doubt, discussion is one of the best methods of study. The seminars in which it has been common have helped greatly to make Universities popular. Adults outside of educational institutions rely upon it, almost as much as upon reading, to present and clarify ideas; and the better teaching in the grades and in high-schools has come to consist largely of discussion. It is, therefore, a very prominent factor in intellectual life; and the loss is tremendous when it so often proves fruitless.

The reason for frequent failure is plain. A discussion is an argumentative investigation of a subject; and it calls for straight thinking; that is always difficult. The first requirements for a good discussion are that the participants—whether they number two or two hundred—have a carefully worded question to investigate, and stick to

it. Those two conditions seem simple; but they are seldom met.

Very often, even on important occasions, there is no definite question before the house, or it is a poor one. We all know how carefully the subject for an important debate must be worded. But often the so-called "question" for discussion is only a broad topic; and there is a vast difference between a topic and a good question. For example, note the difference between "Tariff" as a subject for discussion, and the question: "Does the consumer pay the tariff?" Or, "Is the tariff really a local matter?" This topic fixes only the outside limits of a very broad field, while these questions direct attention to very narrow parts of that field, called "points." Participants in the discussion of this topic might easily wander about at will, no two considering the same matters at any one time, although all held to the same broad subject. But persons discussing one of these questions, would, on account of its narrowness, have to talk "to the point"; and there would then be some hope of reaching a conclusion. Good thinking is based on valuable clearly stated questions; and any discussion must start with such a question, as the first condition of "getting somewhere."

Holding to the point is the next essential; and that is by no means easy. In my experience the first speaker is likely to talk to the point; the second will wander from it a little; the third will wander farther away; and the fourth will discuss some irrelevant matter. The reason for this is that each speaker after the first is likely to take his cue from the preceding speakers rather than from the original question. The second one, being reminded by the first of something interesting, gives expression to it, even though it does not quite fit in. The third follows a more distant suggestion received from the others, etc. Now and then some one is struck by an idea with such force, that he has got to express it, even though it bears no relation whatever to the subject in hand. Prominent men are among the worst offenders in this respect. In debates over the radio they not seldom ignore their announced subject and merely talk. Either they are too ignorant to understand the requirements of a debate; or they are so egotistical as to assume that whatever they happen to say will be interesting.

Sticking to the point really requires a trained mind, and that training can be aided by doing certain things until they become habits: One of these, as already stated, is to make sure that a satisfactory problem is set up; one that is worth consideration and clear in meaning: If that provision seems to be overlooked, it may require courage to insist upon it before discussion is allowed to begin. Then, when the question has been formulated, it is advisable to write it down and look at it now and then. It needs to be nursed, so that one will not lose his bearings.

After that, the relevancy of each contribution to the discussion should be weighed. Many participants will not take the situation seriously enough to subject themselves to any rules, even if they know what the rules of discussion are. Those who do take it seriously and understand the rules—including the Chairman—are the ones who must call the others to order. One of the best ways of injecting proper seriousness into a discussion is for some participant

to ask how the contribution that some one has just offered bears on the subject. That inquiry may cause the question to be restated; and if it results in some embarrassment on the part of the last speaker, because he cannot show the desired relevancy of his remarks, it will tone up further discussion. This responsibility for seeing that all participants stick to the point falls first upon the chairman; but it helps greatly if others share it with him.

Relevancy of remarks is only one of the things that all participants must watch. All contributions should not only bear on the point; but they should themselves be pointed. There should be a good organization, even in a five minute speech. This means that all one's statements should so focus on the issue, that everyone understands his meaning. I recall one man who spoke perhaps eight minutes on a subject before about five hundred persons. When he sat down, I, as Chairman, asked him if he had intended to make two points or only one. He replied, after some hesitation and embarrassment, that he did not know. If he did not know, certainly no one else did; and there was a loss of eight minutes for each of five hundred persons.

One aid toward forceful discussion is to fix a very short time limit for all speakers; say, two or three minutes. Many of those who share in discussion are in no hurry to stop, or even to come to the point; they like to talk. But so short a time limit precludes that careless state of mind; when they rise, they must do so in order to state their point, rather than to make a speech. That requirement is very difficult for some to meet. I have known one man, who invariably in lecturing, was only about half through when he began to try to stop; and owing to his poor terminal facilities his lectures were generally one-half hour too long. Such people should not be allowed by the chairman to kill a discussion. It takes very few minutes for any one to state his point, if he goes right at it; and the ability to stop promptly, even with a jolt, is one of the conditions of a highly successful meeting.

Another responsibility resting on all par-

Participants in discussion is the constant weighing of values. Many ideas that are relevant to a given subject are too trivial to be mentioned. Yet, unless considerable pains are taken, they are likely to occupy much of the time. The reason for this danger is that our sense of value is not generally developed. Without doubt, there is much in our textbooks and lectures in school and college that lacks worth. But in my school days it was not safe to express a judgment on such a matter. And I remember only one student in college who had the temerity, on one occasion, to point out material as worthless. He was called impudent! In consequence most of us have been trained to collect and reproduce, rather than to evaluate. Consequently in discussion we are likely to introduce what we believe to be relevant and true, rather than what will aid toward a valuable conclusion. Indeed, in our devotion to relevant facts, we tend to forget all about value, and the need of "getting somewhere." That being the case, those participants in discussion, who do have an active sense of value must exercise it constantly by directing attention to the more vital contributions. Reference to relative values should be frequent, the chairman in particular assuming responsibility for its consideration.

As already indicated, the primary responsibility for the success of a discussion rests on the Chairman. It follows that no one should be placed in the chair simply because he is socially or politically prominent, with the sole task of calling the speakers by name, or introducing them. I recall one dinner in New York City to which about one hundred and fifty persons were invited. Its object was to bring this selected group together for a conference on Near East Relief. But after an hour of so-called discussion, many persons left in disgust, because the talk merely drifted. The man in the chair had no fitness for that kind of leadership.

The chairman should understand the subject for consideration well. He should, also, know many of the prospective speakers, so that at a critical moment he can call

upon the one most likely to advance the discussion. He should from time to time announce the particular phase of the subject under consideration; should draw the speakers back to the point, if they wander; and see that the more important contributions are recognized as such. His is a very aggressive task, therefore. It is a leadership in thinking on some important subject. Now and then he may well summarize what has been accomplished up to that point, and show what are the next questions to receive attention.

Such leadership is rather rare, because it is left to be picked up, instead of being definitely taught. And very many fail to pick it up. Probably more than one-half of all the college professors, who rely upon discussion as a method of teaching, never learn to lead well. They allow indefinite wandering by their students; or are non-plused by loquacious individuals; or are defeated in a half dozen other ways.

There seem to be two main reasons why ability in discussion is so neglected. One is that people do not realize how great a thing that ability is. As suggested at the beginning, effective discussion is really effective thinking; and effective thinking is probably the chief purpose of instruction. If people in general could think straight on modern political and moral questions, there would be far more hope of solving some of them.

The other reason for this neglect is that skill in discussion is a matter of method. It means control of method. And teachers everywhere are little interested in the student's control of method. Most of them are hardly aware that the student has a method; and most of those who are aware of it, are little concerned about it. So the student is not taught a method of thinking.

The thing that ordinarily counts is knowledge of subject matter. Courses in subject matter—in literature, science, art, etc.—are given by the thousand. And students are constantly tested in their newly acquired knowledge of these fields. But where are courses given in the art of think-

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How Do You Behave When the Children Misbehave?

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TEACHERS good, indifferent, and poor are usually interested in the problem of "discipline." Unfortunately many teachers have often considered the behavior of the child as something apart from their conception of his education. That is to say that they have often conceived education in a very narrow sense. This type of teacher has constantly and consistently failed to see that education in its true sense must accept its responsibility for the proper direction of every phase of the child's activity and growth. To such teachers the acquirement of knowledge has been the end of education. When this attitude prevails the teacher is usually disturbed by the child's behavior only when the actions of the child are annoying to her.¹ These annoying reactions she punishes with such force as to guarantee their disappearance, at least from open view. The remedy is strikingly comparable to placing one with a high temperature in an ice pack.

On the other hand there are many teachers who are keenly interested in every phase of the child's development. To these teachers every reaction of the child is a symptom of his health or ill-health. They assume the responsibility of doing something toward the development of a well-balanced, happy and efficient personality in their children. But one may say that what has just been said is too general. In fact it sounds rather like the preaching of a teacher of education. Give some specific examples of how these two types of teachers handle their everyday school problems and one can interpret more specifically and practically the position taken in this and the foregoing paragraph.

^{1,2} The classification of behavior used here is taken from E. K. Wickman's, *Children's Behavior and Teacher's Attitudes*, New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1928. In this interesting book Mr. Wickman has made a substantial contribution to the problem of the mental health of the school child. The author recommends this book to teachers interested in the subject.

Very well. That is precisely the purpose of this brief article. During the past summer the writer taught a course entitled "Mental Health of the School Child." There were twenty-seven students in this class. Twenty-three of these individuals had just completed a year of teaching in the elementary school. The remaining four were undergraduate students. Each student in the class was given a list of fifty types of behavior.² The teachers were asked to list after each type of behavior the treatment they had used when this behavior occurred. They were requested to give treatments only in case the specific type of activity had appeared in their experience. The undergraduate students were asked to follow the same procedure except that they were to list in each case the specific treatment that was used when the type of behavior occurred when they were pupils in the elementary school. The students, both the teachers and the undergraduate students, were requested to turn in their reports unsigned as the instructor did not care to know their personal answers.

Three typical papers have been chosen as representative of three rather distinct attitudes which are manifested by the answers in the papers submitted. Let us call the author of the first paper Teacher I; of the second paper Teacher II; and of the third paper Undergraduate Student. Or as subtitles we may designate them arbitrarily as:

- A. Modern attitude
- B. Transition attitude
- C. Ancient attitude

The reports taken from the three typical papers are given in Table I. The table should be read as follows:

On type of behavior No. 1 Teacher I reported that she had had no such problem, Teacher II

reported "Verbal correction; satisfactory performance before dismissal" as a treatment, and Undergraduate Student reported "Remain after school." It should be remembered that the "treatments" are given in the table just as they were given in the original answers. Therefore one should not expect the remedies recommended by Teacher I to be ideal or perfect.

The three types of teacher reactions are presented in this manner because they appear to represent three widely varying attitudes toward child behavior. The degree of perfection of any specific remedy is not under question. Furthermore the writer is

fully aware of the criticisms that might easily be offered of the manner in which the reactions were secured, but the purpose of the paper hardly seems to necessitate flawless technique.

Teacher I and Teacher II have had four and five years' experience in teaching in elementary schools of about the same size and equipment. Teacher I has done her teaching in the third grade, and Teacher II has taught in the fourth and fifth grades. The Undergraduate Student attended school in a town of approximately the same population as that in which Teacher I and Teacher II are teaching at present.

TABLE I
THE ATTITUDE OF THREE TYPES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS TOWARD FIFTY SPECIFIC FORMS OF CHILD BEHAVIOR

Type of behavior	Teacher I's treatment* (Modern attitude)	Teacher II's treatment* (Transition attitude)	Undergraduate report* (Ancient attitude)
1. Impertinence	I have not had this problem. I have seen a child paddled for seeming impertinence.	Verbal correction. Satisfactory performance before dismissal.	Remain after school.
2. Impudence	I have not had this problem.	I call the child's attention to his errors and try to get his desire for improvement.	Remain after school.
3. Destroying school material	In my experience I have had two cases of willful destroying of school property. I had the offenders replace the destroyed material.	Replace property or make suitable amends.	Sent to principal.
4. Stubbornness	I have not seen any real stubbornness. I have seen children who feared doing a task because they thought they could not do it but this was far from being stubborn.	Satisfactory performance of offending act before dismissal.	Remain after school to do extra work.
5. Quarrelsomeness	If a child cannot cooperate with the group I have denied him the privilege of being with the group.	Let them fight it out unless they become too rough.	Sent to sit in the back of the room.
6. Disorderliness in class	When I find an individual becoming what we call disorderly I try to give him something to do—keep him busy.	Reprimand. Send them from room to work.	Sent out in the hall to stand for a while.
7. Suggestible	To aid a child in having initiative of his own I usually give him some responsibility such as taking charge of a certain piece of work or of a group and let him carry on what he thinks should be carried on.	I have had no specific cases.	Remain after school.

* It should be kept in mind that these responses have not been edited at all, but are presented as they were submitted.

Type of behavior	Teacher I's treatment* (Modern attitude)	Teacher II's treatment* (Transition attitude)	Undergraduate report* (Ancient attitude)
8. Laziness	Much "laziness" is a result of a child's ill-health—he does not feel like working. I am certain that he is lazy before I impose work upon him, and if I am sure that he does not want to work I find some method of getting it done. Sometimes I let him suggest what he would like to do. In activity work one can nearly always arouse interest in some phase of it in all children.	Require a minimum of tasks to be completed.	Given talks by teacher upon danger of forming lazy habits.
9. Sullenness	I have never had what I would term a sullen child. It is usually some other thing and if a sense of inferiority is in the child it is serious and needs real treatment, not punishment.	Let the pupil alone.	Reproved with sarcasm by teacher before the class.
10. Lack of interest in work	This would be <i>my</i> fault. If we take children's interests, things in their experience, and direct them there is an interest in work. I have not had this trouble.	Report condition to parents.	Talked to by teacher attempting to revive interest.
11. Carelessness in work	I usually appeal to the pride of the careless child, ask him if this work is the best he can do.	Make them reach the minimum requirements by repetition.	Low grades, nothing else that I remember.
12. Slovenly in appearance	Denial of the privilege of using attractive materials such as clay, books, etc. usually brings the desired effect of soap and water. Then praising him when he is clean helps greatly.	Refuse admittance to class until fully dressed. Give them soap and towels.	Nothing.
13. Inattention	I am sure before I try anything else that the child is not ill. (Bad teeth or tonsils cause much seeming inattention in small children.) I find inattention when I am driving the child too long—forcing him beyond reasonable expectation—or because what I am giving him is not interesting.	Try to enlist their interest. Advise parents of failures.	Asked to repeat what the teacher has just said. Upon failure to do so, remain after school, learn material and do more work.
14. Masturbation	I have had but one case of this. I kept the child busy. Had him to do much of my manual work connected with activity I had on hand.	No specific cases.	Sent to principal.
15. Cheating	I have refused to take the work of cheaters. Fortunately I have had very few "cheaters."	Talk with the child.	Sent to principal.

Type of behavior	Teacher I's treatment* (Modern attitude)	Teacher II's treatment* (Transition attitude)	Undergraduate report* (Ancient attitude)
16. Untruthfulness	I have found that asking children if what they told were true or was it like a fairy story has helped me very much. I do not find much untruthfulness for the sake of telling a lie but mainly as the result of imagination.	If continuous sent to principal.	Remained after school for several days. Talked to by teacher.
17. Unreliableness	Praise of the reliable ones often causes the unreliable one to want to be trusted. If a child tells me some fabulous story I discount much of it for any adult can tell about what could be true. Things seem different to a child.	Appoint monitors for these pupils until they develop reliability.	Nothing more than non-assignment of tasks calling for reliability.
18. Temper tantrums	I have never had a case of this. I have seen children show anger but by merely saying "Johnnie didn't mean to step on your foot" or something similar I have seen anger cool away.	No actual cases.	Sent from room to stand in the hall.
19. Truancy	I have not had any truancy cases.	No cases.	Sent to principal.
20. Cruelty or bullying	I have had no difficulty with this.	Enlist the sense of fairness of the child. If continued, punish the child.	Lectured by teacher.
21. Unhappy or depressed	This is a real problem. I try to become very good friends with the unhappy child and gain his confidence. Nearly always I can in this manner find the cause of his unhappiness. Giving the unhappy child interesting things to do has helped adjust this type of individual more than anything else I have found.	I ignore it.	Nothing.
22. Whispering	This does not bother me and I rarely pay any attention to it. I try to teach the child to respect anyone when he is speaking but in ordinary work whispering does little harm.	Send out of the room.	Sent to sit in the back of the room.
23. Selfishness	I try to overcome this by "taking turns" at all we do; by being "it" in a game, giving out materials, watering plants, etc.	Scold child.	Rebuked before class.
24. Domineering	The same treatment as for selfishness works well here. It may take some time to adjust a child who has had his way at home for a long time.	No cases.	Rebuked and ridiculed before class.
25. Resentfulness	To my knowledge I have had none of this in my experience.	No cases.	Kept after school.

Type of behavior	Teacher I's treatment* (Modern attitude)	Teacher II's treatment* (Transition attitude)	Undergraduate report* (Ancient attitude)
26. Tattling	I just do not listen to it. When children find that you do not pay any attention they quit tattling.	I ignore it.	Kept after school.
27. Interrupting	I have periods in the day when anything which interests the child can be told to the group and discussed whether it be something that has happened in the town or school or something heard over the radio. This really overcomes the difficulty involved in a child's suddenly talking of something else in the midst of my discussion.	I try to break the habit by enlisting the cooperation of the group. Also, show my disapproval.	Sent to sit in the back of the room.
28. Thoughtlessness	Consequences themselves usually teach the child the results of thoughtlessness. If he gets his feet wet he probably takes cold; if he eats too much candy he probably gets sick. I have many stories which illustrate this, but not in a preaching manner.	Remind child of his error.	Remonstrated by teacher.
29. Easily discouraged	I give such children easy tasks which they can complete with a fair degree of satisfaction. Then I try finding harder ones to challenge them until they gain a feeling of self control and a feeling that they can do something.	Give verbal encouragement.	Given talks of encouragement by teacher.
30. Enuresis	I permit such children to leave the room as often as they desire. I try to look into the case and consult with the parents.	No cases.	Kept after school.
31. Inquisitiveness	I have never had what I consider to be an over-inquisitive child. Yes, there is much curiosity but I consider this to be natural in children.	Answer questions or refer them to particular books. I do not consider this misbehavior.	Warned not to talk so much.
32. Heterosexual activities	No cases.	No cases.	Sent to principal.
33. Obscene notes	I have had no trouble.	Ignore if possible. If not possible, talk with offenders.	Sent to principal.
34. Stealing	I have had things disappear several times when it was impossible for me to tell who the offender was without resorting to the third degree. Several times I have found the offender and it has been my experience that just my knowing was sufficient punishment.	Principal cares for these cases.	Sent to principal. Suspension usually followed.

Type of behavior	Teacher I's treatment* (Modern attitude)	Teacher II's treatment* (Transition attitude)	Undergraduate report* (Ancient attitude)
35. Smoking	Children usually have ideals of being big and strong. I try to appeal to these ideals. This is difficult to handle because the child sees so much of it being done that he doesn't see why he should not do it also. I have had no trouble with this.	No cases have come to my attention.	Sent to principal.
36. Profanity		Send these cases to principal.	Rebuked by teacher and sent to principal.
37. Disobedience	I do not know why but I have had no difficulty in this respect.	Kept after school, if practice is continued; have pupils memorize memory gems while remaining after school.	Given extra tasks by teacher.
38. Unsocialness	I feel that this is serious and I try in numerous ways to show this type of child how much fun the children have together. Usually play helps me to overcome this in a child.	Place child as leader of a game or exercise.	Nothing.
39. Physical coward	I give such children easy things to do, choose him to be "it," etc. If one is patient he usually comes around all right.	Shame such children.	Nothing.
40. Imaginative lying	This is much the same as untruthfulness. Children's imaginations run away with them, as it were. I try to make them see that fairy stories are all right but that we must be able to see the difference between fancy and real things.	Disregard.	Talked to by teacher.
41. Dreaminess	Much of this is due to malnutrition, I think. If I find that the child is dominated by dreaminess, I usually try to have him fancy what he will do in a certain case and perhaps get him to write a story. At least I try to help him to dream of real accomplishments.	I ignore this.	Kept after school.
42. Sensitiveness	I try to diagnose the cause of this. There is usually some rather definite cause. I try to praise him in much that he does and give him much opportunity to show what he can do. Doubtless, one can help a child overcome this.	I have left such children alone.	Nothing.
43. Fearfulness	This can be overcome by giving the child easy tasks, by praising, or by reasoning.	I recall no cases of fear.	Nothing.

Type of behavior	Teacher I's treatment* (Modern attitude)	Teacher II's treatment* (Transition attitude)	Undergraduate report* (Ancient attitude)
44. Shyness	This is much the same as sensitiveness and presents to me a real problem. I try to find what the child is interested in, ask him to tell the class about it, bring in any material that he has on the subject, and because the other children respect him for his knowledge he begins to have more confidence in himself.	Give them opportunity to meet people.	Nothing.
45. Attracting attention	This is more or less natural in children. If Mary has a new dress she likes for teacher to comment upon it so I do and it passes by. I can usually find different things in others to praise and more or less create a feeling that we all have some very nice traits.	Move the pupil to the back of the room.	Put in closet.
46. Restlessness	I believe the teacher is responsible for this. I try to vary my work and when I see an air of restlessness in the children, I stop what we are doing and do something else—sing a song or anything different. Restlessness is usually caused by the child being tired or because he has been held too long at one task.	Move the pupil away from the others.	Made to stand outside the room in the hall.
47. Tardiness	I do not dwell on this because the child always has a grand excuse. I try to start the day off in such a way that the child does not like to miss the beginning.	Have pupil remain after school.	Remain after school for a week.
48. Nervousness	There is reason to be alarmed over this. I usually go into the physical side of a case of this kind; it may be that the child is underfed, needs glasses, is not getting sufficient sleep, etc. I do not emphasize his nervousness by talking to him about it. I allow him freedom to move about. It is torture to make him sit still or hold him long to tasks.	I moved the child's seat away from the others and let him work as he could; otherwise this child disturbed the group.	Made to sit in the back of the room.
49. Over-critical of others	I try to find good points in the one criticized and lead the child to look for good things everywhere.	I do not recall any cases.	Rebuked by teacher.
50. Suspiciousness	I have had no trouble of this kind.	Most children are suspicious. I have told them that they must not accuse without proof.	Nothing.

Perhaps elementary teachers will be interested in checking their attitudes by the answers in Table I. A very small amount of observing in the public schools will convince one that the attitude we have designated as "ancient" is by no means extinct. Perhaps nothing indicates so thoroughly and quickly the degree of the real efficiency of an elementary teacher as her attitude toward child behavior. The purpose of this article is to stimulate teachers to take stock of the viewpoint manifested by their own behavior toward the behavior of the children under their care.

Some teachers may wonder why the answers of Teacher I have been considered superior to those of Teacher II. In answer to this query the following observations are valuable:

1. Notice the types of behavior with which Teacher I has not been troubled. Proper treatment of more fundamental causes seems to have eliminated certain types of behavior which gave Teacher II difficulty. For examples of this refer to the treatments used in connection with types of behavior listed as numbers 1, 2, 4, 37, 42, and 45.
2. It is even more significant to note the reactions of Teacher I to types of behavior which are usually ignored: shyness, cowardice, etc. She considers these problems to be very important. For illustrations of this difference turn to the remedies used in connection with types of behavior listed as numbers 21, 38, 41, and 44. This emphasis is in harmony with the greatest experts on mental health. These students of human development vividly remind us of the significance of these non-troublesome and therefore ignored types of behavior by pointing to the fact that the great bulk of adult mal-adjustment, ranging from criminality to insanity is often the result of neglected behavior of this type.¹
3. Then there are wide differences manifested by the kinds of specific remedies

used by Teacher I and Teacher II. It seems rather evident that Teacher I is constantly seeking for treatments which will help the maladjusted child, while on the other hand, Teacher II often uses punishments calculated to rid herself of the trouble with little or no regard for the trouble-maker. Examine remedies used for types of behavior listed in Table I as numbers 6, 8, 10, 17, 23, and 48 for interesting examples of this difference. Numbers 10, 23, and 48 are especially illuminating in this connection. When the pupils show a lack of interest in their work Teacher I feels responsible to secure interest and sets about to do so, while Teacher II is content to report the matter to the child's parents. Or again when these teachers were confronted with the problem of selfishness Teacher I makes a constructive effort to assist the child to overcome this difficulty, but Teacher II attempts to drive the symptom from view by scolding. A further example is found in the case of nervousness. Teacher II is anxious to keep the nervous child from disturbing the school-room routine, but Teacher I makes ardent effort to help the nervous child to learn to adjust himself to his environment. These illustrations make this third difference clear.

In many quarters the ultimate value of the education now offered to our youth is being questioned. It is demanded, and perhaps rightly so, that the schools produce a better product. That is, individuals who are able to meet the problems of life more squarely and solve them more effectively and constructively, both from the viewpoint of the welfare of society and of the individuals themselves.² We have, therefore, a larger responsibility than that of teaching the fundamentals, important as that may be. Perhaps the first step toward a more adequate fulfilment of that responsibility is the acquiring of an attitude which grows out of a deep interest in the development of the child toward a wholesome adjustment to life's situations.

¹ See Karl A. Menninger, *The Human Mind*, New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1930, for an abundance of clinical evidence of this fact. Also, E. K. Wickman, Op. Cit., vividly sustains this point.

² See William H. Burnham, *The Wholesome Personality*, New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1932; and William White, *The Mental Hygiene of Childhood*, Boston: Little, Brown, and Co., 1919, for a more thorough discussion of this point.

The Lack of Cerebral Dominance as a Cause of Reading Disabilities

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THE theory of the relationship of cerebral dominance to reading disabilities is gaining wide acceptance. It is the purpose of this article to describe this theory and to point out its limitations.

As evidence of the popularity of this theory the conclusions from several current studies are cited. Fagan, after the study of one case, concludes:

In this case, as in other motor lead shift cases, the imposition of writing on the right hand has developed the latent reaction patterns of the left cerebro-cortico-neuro-muscular mechanism basic to articulate as well as to graphic speech. In a cortical condition of bi-laterality of functional dominance as induced by changes in handedness the probability of inter-cortical confusion in symbol and word orientation and configuration gives rise to reading, spelling, and writing disabilities as well as to stuttering.¹

Other students of the reading problem are reaching similar conclusions. Fildes and Meyers say, "It is evident that in a left-handed child taught to write with his right hand, and writing with his left when unobserved, a special factor is operative which tends to present him with the wrong (i.e., reversed) word more frequently than in the case of a right-handed child, and so must lead to utter impotence to decide which is the right form of the letter."² Richards says, "These tendencies (reversals) are more evident in left-handed than they are in right-handed individuals, and their incidence seems greater in those cases where dominance of either right or left hand is not clear cut."³

¹ L. B. Fagan, "A Case Study of Dextral Training of a Left-Handed Boy and its Effect on Speech, Reading, and Writing," *Psychological Clinic*, XIX (Feb., 1931), P. 293.

² T. W. Richards, "A Clinical Study of a Severe Case of Reading Disability in a Left-handed Child Who was Taught to Read by a Combined Grapho-Motor and Voco-Motor Method," *Psychological Clinic*, XIX (Feb. 1931), P. 286.

³ L. G. Fildes and C. S. Meyers, "Left-handedness and the Reversals of Letters," *British Journal of Psychology*, XII (1921), P. 278.

Teachers have known that children tend to confuse letters and words similar in appearance and many consider such confusions as entirely normal for a great number of children. This peculiar type of reading behavior, however, has failed until recently to arouse the same amount of interest as other types of reading symptoms. The neglect was due, in the first place, to the fact that these errors make up a very small part of the total number of errors. In the second place, most children sooner or later overcome this tendency to make reversals or this particular type of error is masked by a general reading disability.

In recent years Orton and Dearborn have devoted considerable emphasis to this problem and have advanced an interesting theory. Orton's theory rests upon certain fundamental facts of brain physiology. He points out that there are three levels of the brain, the perceptive, the recognitive, and the associative. Inasmuch as the associative level is of importance in an understanding of Orton's theory it is appropriate that he be quoted directly. Orton writes:

When we come to the third phase of elaboration the situation is strikingly different, this is the level at which written or printed symbol is linked with its meaning and here it is variously described as the associative, concept, or symbolic level. Here not only is damage to one hemisphere sufficient to destroy function but it makes a difference which hemisphere is effected. If the hemisphere which is known as the dominant happens to suffer, a complete loss of this function results and the patient becomes word blind. If, on the other hand, the damage occurs in the other hemisphere—the non-dominant—nothing apparently happens.⁴

⁴ Samuel T. Orton, "The Sight-Reading Method of Teaching Reading as a Source of Reading Disability," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XX (1929), P. 139.

In the cerebral areas visual presentation results in the implantation of paired engrams one of which must be selected. A lack of appropriate selection of one of these paired engrams gives the basis for the reading disability. Unless there is consistent elision of the one of the pair which is implanted in the non-dominant and a selection of the other of the pair, in the dominant area, there is evidence of confusion in direction and orientation which is manifested through symptoms peculiar to cases of reading disabilities.

Orton writes of this area which is peculiarly dominant as follows:

That training for elision of one set of images may operate in either hemisphere is obvious when we consider that dominantly left-handed children have apparently no greater difficulty in learning to read than do dominantly right-handed children. Those children, however, who are neither dominantly right-handed nor left-handed, or in whom clear cut dominance has not been well established before they begin to learn to read probably have more trouble with reversals of letters.⁵

These characteristics and peculiarities, or symptoms, of which Orton speaks are:

1. Confusion between b and d, or p and q.
2. Uncertainty in reading short pallindromic words, as saw for was.
3. A tendency to reverse parts of words or whole syllables, as gary for gray.
4. Greater facility than usual in reading from the mirror.
5. Frequently a facility in producing mirror writing.

Dearborn's theory, similar to that of Orton, may be understood from the following quotation:

It appears that in order to avoid difficulties in reading and writing one should be either left-eyed and left-handed or right-eyed and right-handed, and preferably the latter. Difficulties appear especially in children who have been "changed over" in handedness and whose "one sidedness" or lateral dominance has never been established.⁶

In spite of the apparent plausibility of this theory jointly shared by Orton and Dearborn it must yet be substantiated. In spite of the fact that Orton has contributed several articles to the literature he has yet to cite satisfactory experimental evidence. He has generalized solely from clinical cases, the number of which is not stated. Miss Monroe's first study, carried out under the direction of Orton, failed to mention any data that might tend to confirm Orton's theory.⁷ Miss Monroe's most recent study has also failed to give definite verification of Orton's theory. She tabulated the z scores for reversals and analyzed them with regard to the mixed dextrals. She found these pupils to make a slightly higher score. Hand preferences showed little significant differences among the groups. With respect to reversals Miss Monroe says, "The tendency for left-eyed children to make more reversals than right-eyed children is present in all three groups, although no one group alone shows the tendency reliably."⁸

Dearborn has reported the results obtained from one hundred clinical cases.⁹ Conclusions, however, which are drawn from clinical case studies must be accepted with reservation. A theory should be substantiated experimentally and applied to clinical cases for further verification. Dearborn and Orton, however, derive their theory solely from clinical cases.

In addition to the lack of experimental evidence for the theory there are several minor objections. In the first place a physiological theory seems to be an over-simplification of the problem. The higher mental processes, basic to the reading process, are made subservient to certain physiological conditions. Secondly, this theory has failed to take into consideration the possibility of learning difficulties due to low intelligence, inadequate visual perception, per-

(Continued on page 270)

⁵ Samuel T. Orton, "Word Blindness in School Children," *Archives of Neurology and Psychiatry*, IV (1925). P. 614.

⁶ W. F. Dearborn, "The Nature of Special Abilities and Disabilities," *School and Society*, XXXI (1930). P. 633.

⁷ Marion Monroe, "Methods for Diagnosis and Treatment of Reading Disability," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, No. 4 & 5, Oct. 1928. Pp. 331-457.

⁸ Marion Monroe, *Children Who Cannot Read*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. P. 84.

⁹ W. F. Dearborn, "Ocular and Manual Dominance in Dyslexia," *Psychological Bulletin*, XXVIII (Nov., 1931). P. 704.

Visiting the Homes of Nursery School Children as a Means of Securing Better Understanding

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HOW can the nursery school best co-operate with the parents so that the staff, can be of maximum assistance to the parents and the children? So often the term "parent education" is used glibly with little realization of the wealth of valuable information that parents can give the school.

At Mills College the nursery school staff go into the homes and visit. We consider this as important as the teaching done at school. Each child is visited at least twice a year and oftener if necessary. For the first visit the staff member goes home with the child at the end of the nursery school day. The ride home in the auto is a friendly one during which child, parent and teacher become better acquainted. After a visit to the child's home we can understand the child better in relation to his home.

We see the house that is his "home"; the toys he plays with and where he plays; and by casual questions we can find out about the child's physiological habits such as: eating, sleeping and elimination. This is a first-hand opportunity to see the type of food served and the actual methods used to encourage its consumption. Preparation for bed after lunch is an excellent chance to discover whether the same procedures for flushing the toilet, washing the hands and helping himself are encouraged at home as at school.

While the child is asleep, the teacher and parent talk informally about things that interest and perplex the parents. By inquiring concerning "after nap" activities and "what do you do on Sunday", we can learn about the mutual activities of parents and child and can make suggestions about management. Often parents in the home remember to tell things about their children that they

have forgotten during the conferences at school.

When we see that Helen does not come when she is called but continues to play or run down the street, we can ask, "I wonder why she does it?" Such queries lead to practical and helpful analysis by mother, father and teacher of the problem at hand. Together, through discussion, they can arrive at a common basis from which to work so that similar methods may be used at home and at school. The home visit tries to adapt nursery school teaching to actual home situations so that it will work practically and the carry-over will be greater. Johnny will no longer just drink milk at school and refuse it at home.

In some homes, it may take more than one or two visits to gain the confidence necessary before advice is acceptable. As an outgrowth of observations, such suggestions can be made as, "Do you know that Tommy can put on and fasten his own overalls now?" or "A child of three is able to do this." The advice offered can be suited to the particular parent and to that situation.

After these visits and observations of eating, sleeping and playing, the parents feel freer to come to the nursery school teachers for advice and freer to invite them again, "company" as the child says. They are no longer merely "teachers inside the nursery school fence" but people who come home as guests and friends, on picnics and come to tea.

ANALYSIS OF RECORDS

To find out the need of the parents and the children at home and to help us cooperate further with them, the following summary was made, based on records of 42 home visits made by one member of the

* Acknowledgment: Dr. L. C. Wagoner's interest and assistance.

Mills College Nursery School staff during the years 1932 and 1933.

The records did not consist of the usual details to be checked, but consisted of identifying information and topical headings. The identifying information was: name, date, visit, teacher. The topics to be considered and which were given ample place for discussion were:

1. House
2. Play and Play Equipment
3. Physiological Habits
4. Mutual Activities of Parents and Child
5. Management of the Child
6. Additional Information
7. Suggestions.

The information included in this paper is that obtained by analyzing the topics of the home visits records.

CHILD'S ENVIRONMENT

Type of House

Thirty-eight of the children lived in houses and only four lived in apartments.

Size of House

Thirty-two of the houses were small, of the California bungalow style, built on one floor. They had from four to six rooms, one bath.

There were four medium sized houses of bungalow style having one and a half stories, seven to eight rooms, and one bath.

The six large houses had two stories and two or three baths and nine or eleven rooms. The architecture was English style.

Orderliness of House

In thirty-eight homes regard for order-

TABLE I
OCCUPANTS OF CHILD'S BED ROOM

Room with some one else		Room alone
Mother	4	23
Father	2	17
Both parents	3	42
Brother	4	
Sister	2	
Other relatives	1	
Maid	3	

liness was shown by the provision of places to put things. This does not mean, however, that appropriate shelves and hooks were always available.

Child's Sleeping Accommodations

The child's sleeping accommodations refer to the room in which he sleeps, with whom he sleeps and the type of bed he uses.

TABLE II
TYPE OF BED

Crib alone	Bed alone	Bed with someone else
26	15	1

Storage Space

"Storage space" is used to designate appropriate and convenient hooks for clothing and box or shelves for toys.

TABLE III
STORAGE SPACE

High clothes hooks	33
Low clothes hooks	9
Toy box	9
Toy shelves	9
No provision for toy storage	24

Toilet Fixtures

None of the homes had low basins or toilets but one had installed a footstool to overcome the difficulties and some had put up low hooks for towels.

TABLE IV
TOILET FIXTURES

No footstool	41
High hooks	33
Own towel	28
Shared towel	14
Low hooks	9
Footstool	1

Outdoor Play Space

The yards classified as small were about 20 feet by 20 feet.

TABLE V
OUTDOOR PLAY SPACE

Yards	37
Sunny	32

Small
Grass
Fenced
Unfenced
Dirt
Large
No yard
Medium
Dark
Cement

25 Business college 1
22 Foreign school 1
20 Doctor of Philosophy 1

TABLE IX

TYPE OF TRAINING: FATHERS

Bachelor of Arts 13
High School complete 9
High School incomplete 6
College incomplete 5
Doctor of Philosophy 5
Foreign School 2
Normal School completed 1
No schooling 1

Indoor Play Space

Those children who did not have adequate play space indoors had to share their rooms with an adult and had no other place to play.

TABLE VI
INDOOR PLAY SPACE

Adequate 27
Inadequate 15

Members of Household

Members of the household were all those living in the house with the children.

TABLE VII
MEMBERS OF HOUSEHOLD

Mother and father 40
Maid 13
Sisters 12
Brothers 11
Aunt 3
Uncle 3
Mother 2
Others 2
Grandmother 8
Grandfather 1

Household Help

One of the small homes had a full time maid and eight had part time help; all of the medium sized homes had part time help; the large homes had no maids.

*Training of Parents*TABLE VIII
TYPE OF TRAINING: MOTHERS

High School course completed 13
Bachelor of Arts 10
Normal School completed 7
Nurses Training completed 3
Master of Arts 2
None 2
College incomplete 2

Present Occupations of Parents

TABLE X

PRESENT OCCUPATIONS OF MOTHERS

Housekeeper 28
Teacher 5
Nurse 3
Playground worker 1
Storekeeper 1
Nursery school housekeeper 1
Personnel examiner 1
Newspaper editor 1
College professor 1

TABLE XI

PRESENT OCCUPATIONS OF FATHERS*

Salesman 4
Attorney 3
Contractor 3
College instructor 2
Auto salesman 2
Unemployed 2
Accountant 2
Meat market owner 1
Engineer 1
Grocer 1
Carpenter 1
Sales manager 1
Food shop owner 1
Principal of public school 1
Newspaper reporter 1
Auto supply manufacturer 1
Dentist 1
Druggist 1
Insurance broker 1
Tire manufacturer 1
Manager cream manufacturing machine 1
Draftsman 1
Railroad employee 1
Banker 1

* Two fathers are deceased.

Architect
Rug manufacturer
Research worker
Auto builder
Engineering instructor

1
1
1
1
1

Puzzle
Scissors
Beads
Planks
Slide
Games
Stuffed animals

2
1
1
1
1
1
1

TABLE XII
PLAYMATES

Alone
Family children
Friends
Adult

18
17
11
4

Play Equipment

TOY SELECTION

"Good selection" of toys is understood to mean consideration of: strength, durability, appropriateness, interest, etc. Poor selection overlooked these points. "Adequate number" of toys indicated that the child had enough toys to interest him and at the same time not to overstimulate him.

TABLE XIII
TOY SELECTION

Good selection
Poor selection
Adequate number
Too few
Too many

22
16
19
12
11

TABLE XIV

TOYS IN 42 HOMES OF NURSERY SCHOOL
CHILDREN

Name of Toy	Frequency
Sand box	19
Doll	18
Books	15
Kiddie kar	12
Swing	11
Bicycle	11
Wagon	10
Blocks	8
Playhouse	5
Ball	5
Hammer	5
Packing boxes	4
Chairs	4
Crayons	4
Blackboard	4
Teddy bear	4
Hanging bar	3
See saw	3
Doll carriage	3
Paint	3
Trains	3

PHYSIOLOGICAL HABITS

Physiological habits are those habits, such as: elimination, eating and sleeping, around which the routine of the small child should be built.

The "regular" bowel movement occurs at a certain definite time daily; "normal" indicates adequate quantity and not constipated; "irregular" may mean not a daily occurrence or uncontrolled defecation.

The children who were "dry" during the day and night did not have to be changed; "regular interval" means children who stayed dry between half-hour, hourly, or two hour intervals.

TABLE XV

ELIMINATION

a. Bowel Movement

Regular	39
Normal	34
Constipated	8
Irregular	3

b. Urination

Dry during day	38
Dry during night	38
Regular interval	35
Irregular interval	7
Wet during night	4
Wet during day	4

School Toilet Procedure

"The school toilet procedure" consists of: flushing the toilet, and washing and drying the hands. Only twelve children were encouraged to do this at home.

Buttoning and Unbuttoning

At school the children are taught to do as much for themselves as possible yet in only twelve homes were the children encouraged to button and in eighteen to unbutton.

Sleep

The home records added little informa-

tion beyond that given in the mothers' daily written reports.

TABLE XVI
AMOUNT AND QUALITY OF SLEEP
Nap

Length		Type	
4 hours	5	Quiet	39
3 hours	5	Restless	3
2 hours	12	Longer since at	
0 hours	20	school	3

TABLE XVII
AMOUNT OF SLEEP
Night

Time in Bed		Time Awake		Total Slept
7:00	35	6:00	4	10½ 2
8:00	6	7:00	8	11 4
9:00	1			11½ 5

TABLE XVIII
SLEEP DIFFICULTIES

Crying	4
Getting out of bed	2
Rocking	1
Picking face	1
Having adult present	1
Calling for drink	1
Singing	1
Begging to stay up at night	1
<i>Eating</i>	

TABLE XIX
EATING

Regular meal hours	37
Appetite good	31
Table with adult	30
No food dislikes	28
Fast eater	28
Food dislikes	14
Slow eater	14
Table alone	12
Appetite poor	11
Irregular meal hours	5
Improved since in school	3
Infrequent drinking of water	3
Vegetarian	1

Mutual Activities of Parents and Children

"Mutual activities of parents and children" considers the amount of time with the parents and the types of activities engaged in.

TABLE XX
TIME CHILD SPENDS WITH MEMBERS OF
HOUSEHOLD

Time	With Mother	Father	Relatives	Maid
After school	29	6	9	8
1-2 hours daily	13	28	2	4
Sat., Sun.	42	36	13	
None daily		8		

TABLE XXI
ACTUAL ACTIVITIES OF PARENTS AND
CHILDREN

Auto riding	23
Reading	13
Excursions	11
Household duties	10
Play	9
Travel	8
Gardening	4
Business in home	3
Walking	1

Parents' Difficulties in Management of Children

"Management of children" lists the difficulties parents were having with their children, difficulties such as: showing off before people or difficulties in teaching the child to eat.

TABLE XXII
PARENTS' DIFFICULTIES IN MANAGEMENT
OF CHILDREN

<i>Difficulties</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Showing off	12
Obedience	11
Eating	11
Elimination	10
Whining	10
Spoiling	9
Temper	9
Sleep	9
Toy selection	8
Concentration	5
Inconsistent treatment	5
Craves attention	5
Grandparents	5
Relatives and friends	5
Will not play alone	5
Discipline	4
Nagging	4
Over-stimulated	4

Dressing	3	Selection of children's books	4
Teasing	3	Encouragement of concentration	4
Overly anxious	3	Management of crying	3
Runs away	3	Selection of music	3
School adjustment	3	Encouragement of standing up for self	3
Improper selection of books	3	Management of showing off	2
Vocabulary	3	Construction of playground	2
Snatching toys	2	Selection of playmates	2
Difficult to adjust to new situations	2	Management of household	2
Foreign language	2	Method of washing hair	2
Too imaginative	2	Encouragement of speed	1
Stuttering	2	Selection of adults books	1
Hair washing	2	Overcoming stuttering	1
Fears	1	Devising a holiday schedule	1
Negativism	1	Keeping a record of behavior	1
Noisy	1	Overcoming baby talk	1
Spitting	1	Handling snatching of toys	1
Does not stand up for own rights	1	Leaving at school	1
Baby in home	1	Joining child psychology class	1

Suggestions Given Parents

"The general suggestions given parents" related to the management of the children, changes in routine, or changes in child's environment. The general suggestions were such as telling the parents to be consistent in their management, encourage self help. Certain things to be avoided in management of children were nagging, discussing child before him. Other suggestions referred to toy selection, establishment of eating habits, etc. The following table gives the frequencies:

TABLE XXIII

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS GIVEN PARENTS

a. Consistent	22
b. Encourage self-help	11
c. Overcome undesirable habits	4
d. Few prohibitions	2
e. Praise rather than punish	2
f. Avoid	
1. Nagging	10
2. Stressing manners	4
3. Discussing him	3
4. Imagining	3

TABLE XXIV

SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS GIVEN PARENTS

<i>Suggestions</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Selection of toys	12
Establish eating habits	9
Construct low clothes hooks	8
Establish sleeping habits	7
Management of temper tantrums	6

SUMMARY

Child's Environment

Four of the forty-two children lived in apartments; thirty-two lived in small California bungalows; thirty-eight were orderly.

Twenty-three children slept alone in the room; twenty-six still slept in cribs.

Clothes hooks were high in thirty-three homes and no provision was made for storage of toys in twenty-four homes.

Only nine homes had attempted to adapt toilet fixtures to children's needs by lowering the hooks.

The fathers of two of the children had died; the other forty children lived with both parents. Nine families had grandmothers living in the house and six families had other relatives.

Training of Parents

Thirteen of the mothers had completed high school; ten had their Bachelor of Arts; seven had finished normal school; three were graduate nurses; two had their Master of Arts, two had had no schooling; two were partially through college; one graduated from a business college; one graduated from a foreign school and one was a Doctor of Philosophy.

Thirteen of the fathers had their Bachelor of Arts, nine were high school graduates, six partially completed high school, five

partially completed college, five were Doctors of Philosophy; two graduated from foreign schools, one was a normal school graduate, and one had no schooling.

Present Occupation of Parents

Twenty-eight of the mothers were housekeepers, five were teachers; three were nurses; one was a play-ground worker, one a storekeeper; one a nursery school housekeeper; one a personal examiner, one a newspaper editor; one a college professor.

The occupations of the fathers were varied, the largest group being salesmen. There were four salesmen; three attorneys, three contractors, two college instructors, etc.

Yard Space

Thirty-seven homes had yards; thirty-two were sunny; and twenty-five were small.

Twenty-seven had adequate indoor play space.

Eighteen of the children played alone and seventeen played with family children.

Play Equipment

Twenty-two children had well selected toys, nineteen had an adequate number.

Sand-boxes were found in nineteen homes, dolls in eighteen and books in fifteen homes.

Physiological Habits

ELIMINATION

Thirty-nine children had regular bowel movements and thirty-four were normal.

URINATION

Thirty-eight children were dry during the day and night.

School Toilet Procedure

Only twelve children used the school toilet procedure.

Buttoning and Unbuttoning

Twelve children were encouraged to button garments alone and eighteen were encouraged to unbutton.

Sleep

NAP

Twenty children did not sleep at nap; thirty-nine were quiet in bed.

NIGHT

Thirty-five children went to bed at night at 7:00 P.M.; five slept eleven hours and a half; eight slept until 7:00 A.M.

Mutual Activities of Parents and Children

Time child spent with members of household.

In twenty-nine homes the children were with mothers after school and in all forty-two homes they were with them Saturday and Sunday; the children were with fathers in thirty-six homes on Saturday and Sunday and in eight homes no time daily together; children with maid in eight homes only.

Mutual activities of parents and children having the greatest of frequencies were: Auto riding in twenty-three homes and reading in thirteen.

Management of Children

The management difficulties parents were having most frequently were: Showing off, obedience, eating, elimination, whining.

SUGGESTIONS

Consistent treatment of children was suggested to twenty-two parents, eleven were urged to encourage the child to do for himself more; ten were asked to avoid nagging; twelve were given suggestions in toy selection; nine were given help in establishing eating habits; eight asked to construct low clothes hooks. One sees by looking at the above summary that little care has been taken to provide the child with a child's environment.



Action is the proper fruit of knowledge.—ANONYMOUS

Activity Units by Student Teachers

Iva Chapman

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MANY excellent articles have appeared from time to time giving accounts of activity units that have been worked out by children in the grades, but few, if any, have been written regarding units developed by students who are in training to be kindergarten-primary teachers.

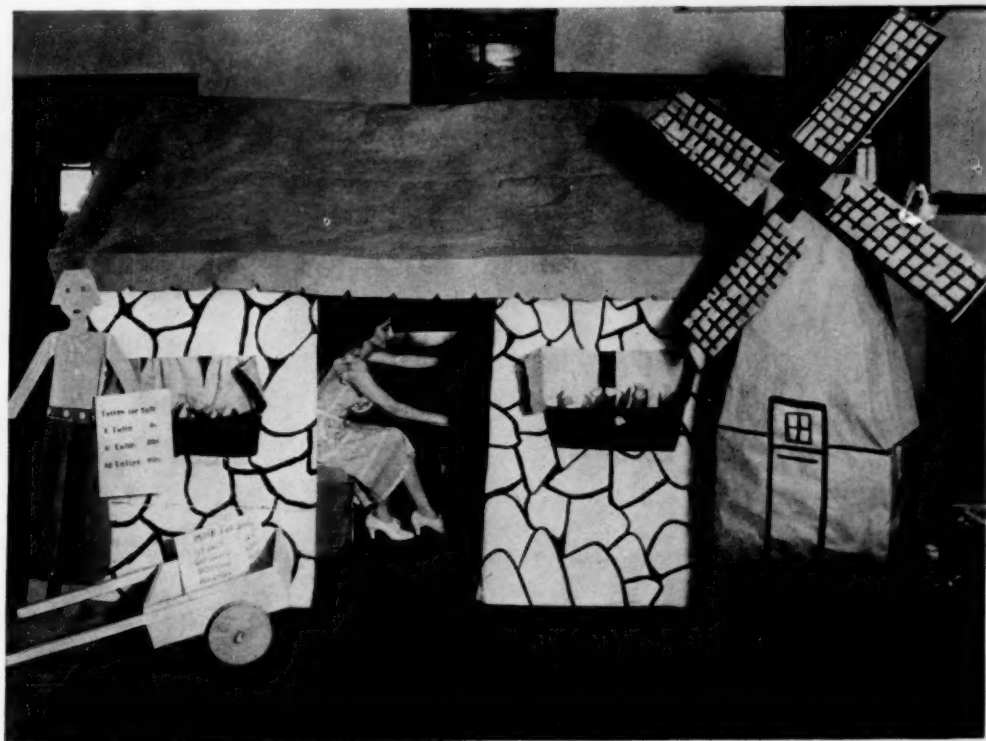
The Texas State College for Women has had many splendid examples of activity units, carefully worked out from the hand work side, showing what could be accomplished with material suitable for children from kindergarten age through the third grade.

These units, prepared by the Juniors

majoring in Kindergarten-Primary Education, were the results of studies made in the Course in Handwork which is offered the first semester of each year. The materials used were clay, wood, textiles, fine arts materials and by-products. Because of the variety of materials necessary for the units, the students became acquainted with and experienced the actual work with all types of fine and industrial arts media.

Tools suitable for this work were available but only those tools with which children are familiar and with which they are permitted to work were used.

Each year the class was divided into groups with a leader for each group. This



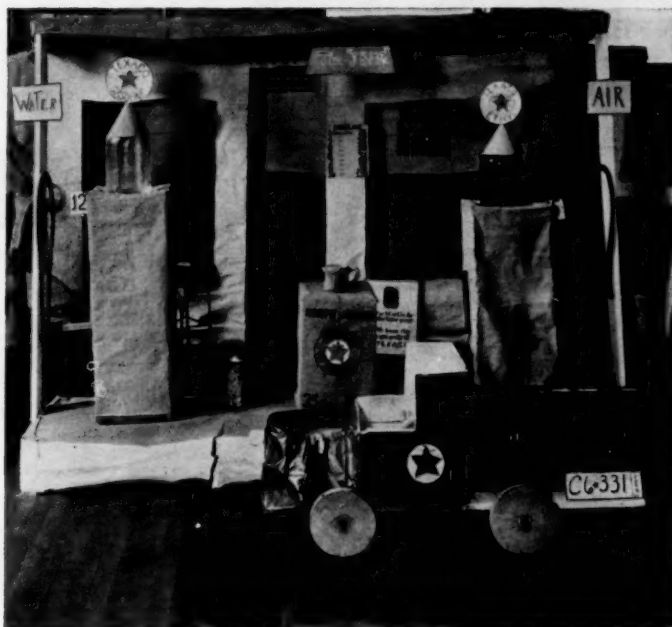
A Dutch house.



The home of *The Three Bears* made by the students.



Individual work by students.



A Texaco filling station.



A Japanese tea room.

facilitated the work and made it more like the actual class room procedure. The groups then chose their units from the list previously submitted by the members of the class and finally approved by them be-

of the discussions could be shared by all.

The theory work concerning activity units is a part of another course given in the Department so it was given here only in so far as it was needed to visualize the



Individual work by students.

cause of the desirable outcomes to be achieved.

Excursions were taken by the groups, either as a group or individually, and in every instance the same methods of work were followed as are followed by children in the class room.

Weekly check-ups were made with all the groups present so that the advantages

working out of the units. One class made charts showing the possible desirable outcomes—just to see how charts would look.

Truly, the laboratory of a Kindergarten-Primary Department is just as interesting a place as a kindergarten or a primary room is, when it comes to working out units, activities, projects, or whatever one chooses to call them.



I shall try to correct errors when shown to be errors, and I shall adopt new views so fast as they shall appear to be true views. ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Creative Abilities of Children

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WHEN we think of creative ability certain people flash through our mind who have achieved distinction as dancers, musicians, artists, poets, thinkers, scientists, and leaders. In our work with children it is not our primary purpose to develop geniuses, but to give all children many opportunities to enrich their background in order to stimulate them to express themselves in original ways. By producing something which is new to them and which is superior to anything they have previously attempted, children are creating in the broadest sense. Thus by giving continuous expression to their ideas and their feelings along various lines, children live their lives to the fullest. Since we recognize that the beginnings of all these native creative abilities manifest themselves early, we give very young children rich experiences, by placing around them carefully selected materials of all kinds. We allow them freedom to use these materials as they wish, and we lead them to recognize and to enjoy distinctiveness in their own contributions.

The other day while I was watching a group of children, I noticed little five year old Charles playing in the kindergarten. He found first a narrow stick of lumber, four feet long, and then a wooden wheel, six inches in diameter; at once he nailed the wheel flat against one end of the stick. He fastened the other end to the side of a box to keep the stick upright. He stood on this and called to Jack, who was playing on a violin which he had made from a cigar box, "Come, I have a microphone. You play the violin and I will sing." He made his station announcement and proceeded with his concert.

Charles was demonstrating creative ability. Through experimentation with mate-

rials at hand, he conceived the idea of a microphone. The little boy with the cigar box violin fitted into his scheme. The making of the microphone, the formulating of the radio announcement, the giving of the radio program all combined to make an experience new to him. This was made possible because of his native desire for experimentation and because of his background at home, which included an understanding of a microphone and its use.

In the same kindergarten, the children were playing "store." Dora came in and asked to use the telephone. Bobby, the storekeeper, said, "I am sorry, lady, our phone has not been put in yet. Call again in about five minutes." When she turned away, he hastily picked up a piece of cardboard, twisted it into a cone shape, fastened it firmly, tied a string to it, and tacked the other end of the string to the box. Upon Dora's return, the phone was ready. Bobby had met the situation and had solved the problem promptly and efficiently.

These illustrations show how every growing intelligent child is stimulated by materials and people around him. Every new experience entered upon stirs him with the spirit of adventure. He is constantly bringing into play his creative power by applying ideas obtained in former experiences to new ones as they arise. The fun that the child has in giving his growing ability free play as he shapes materials to desired results, develops a pleasurable response which will be more easily stirred by a similar experience at another time. Naturally we conclude that it is more important for children to develop inventive ability than to follow old paths. Parents and teachers therefore should strive to provide an environment which grows steadily richer in creative possibilities as the child develops.

In addition to experiences which encourage individual enterprise children find stimulation from working together in groups. Each child gains from the contributions of the members of the group, and finds that his own native tendencies are stimulated by those of other children and this leads to an expression of his own peculiar abilities.

Pictures of Hopi villages were shown to some children in a fourth grade. They were most eager to find out why the Hopi built their homes on the high sandstone cliffs. From this simple beginning, observations at the Southwest Museum of the Hopi collection stimulated creative interest into many lines of endeavor. After much selective reading and discussion, they made use of their imagination and recreated a Hopi village; different children wove baskets, made pottery and rattles, drew symbolical designs, sang chants while grinding corn on the mealing stones, made piki bread, wrote many reports, worked out a Hopi dance, and solved many intellectual problems. Among questions they were anxious to have answers for were: How are these Indians who live on a rocky desert able to raise corn for a living? Is it lawful to melt silver coins to make jewelry? These questions show not only original thinking but are challenging. They lead children to a consideration of much wider problems.

These intellectual and constructive group activities afford repeated practice in creative expression for children along the lines of their particular abilities. These abilities may be stimulated to an equal degree by social and esthetic experiences. The presence of other children in the classroom stimulated leadership qualities in six year old Billy, grandson of a prominent publisher. One day he announced to his class, "Will all of you who are interested in forming a club please stay after school?" The entire group remained. Billy, the potential leader, stated that the purpose of the club was to help others. As it was near Thanksgiving, he interested the children in providing clothing and baskets of food for the poor in the community. Between Thanksgiving

and Christmas they spent a great deal of time in making toys and picture books for children in the hospital. All these enterprises stimulated valuable creative ability in cooperative living for all of the participating members of the club.

In another community, a social need—the restoration of the first mission of California—aroused each child in a school consisting of elementary and high school students to help. Concerted creative ability was aroused when they voted to convert the school's annual spring festival into a money-making affair. At an assembly period they decided to have a pageant showing the early history of California, a Spanish Fiesta, and a Fair for the sale of articles. They also determined which groups should write the pageant and what phases of early history should be emphasized by each group. Committees with representations from various groups worked diligently. As a result of this intense community enthusiasm, the pageant was surprisingly successful. All experienced a feeling of satisfaction when the president of the student body presented one hundred dollars—the money raised, to the chairman of the fund. A cooperative enterprise like this which capitalizes the creative power of an entire school is infinitely richer in possibilities both for the children and the teachers than the older system that centered in mere drilling.

Observations of the out-of-doors aroused Eleanor, a ten year old child, to an expression of her interest in nature. Because of her study of trap-door spiders, she was asked to tell the other children in the school about them. The night before her talk she placed a spider in some loose dirt in a wire cage. As a spider only works at night, she sat up to watch him build his home. After she had carefully organized the findings from her own discoveries, she presented them to her comrades. A vital interest in science on the part of young children demonstrated in ways like this often indicates possibilities of future scientific success and should be encouraged.

Not only intellectual, constructive, and social experiences are beneficial to children

but they may be stimulated by an aesthetic experience. An appeal may be made by a beautiful creation—a bowl of flowers, a picture, a poem, a musical arrangement—and may stimulate the child to express his feeling through different creative channels.

As Billy, a five year old, was arranging pansies in a vase, he said, "Oh, I like flowers. See this little brown pansy, doesn't it look like fog upon the mountain?" It is astonishing how poetic little children are. Our formal methods in the past no doubt have killed in the bud many a poet.

At Christmas time when twelve year old Janet entered a room where some beautiful varied colored satin balls were arranged in pyramid fashion with colors melting, she stood for a few minutes directly in front of them in rapt enjoyment. Then suddenly she brought her hands forward and, with a sweeping outward movement of her arms and a swaying of her body, she made a rhythmical pattern which followed the general outline of the colored balls. Out of such small beginnings does great success in aesthetic dancing develop.

After listening to "The Swan" and "The Butterfly"—two victrola records expressive of contrasting movements—a child in the second grade said, "I can show you how the swan moved and how the butterfly moved." She went to the board and drew a straight line and then two zig-zag lines just alike. Pointing to the straight line she said, "A Swan glides along smoothly like this but a butterfly (pointing to the zig-zag lines) darts about like this. That's the way the

music made it, too." Another child responded, "Yes, because a violin makes light airy music just as a butterfly moves, and the bass violin makes heavier smoother music."

Strong feeling aroused finds outlet through use of materials and tools near at hand. A child's ability to handle blocks, paint brushes, pencils, and words grows as he continues to use them successfully in creative experiences. His vivid imagination at first supplies the details. Gradually he sets a higher standard for himself. He practices the needed technique until he can create in a more and more beautiful way.

What do these instances of children's creative abilities prove?

Creative abilities are present in all growing children according to native tendencies and previous experience. These abilities when continuously exercised in better and better ways lead to strengthening of children's powers and accompanying satisfactions which will function in the control of later experiences.

Creative abilities need a stimulating environment:

1. Materials of all kinds: blocks, tools, pictures, music, flowers.
2. Discriminating adults who can help children to evaluate the distinctive qualities of their contributions and can stir them to better and better activities.

These stimulating environments arouse feelings and stir creative abilities and thus develop a personality to the fullest.

The Vow of Washington

His rule of justice, order, peace
Made possible the worlds' release
Taught prince and serf that power is but a trust
And rule alone, which serves the ruled is just.

JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER

The Child and Music

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IT IS being increasingly recognized by students of child development that, in certain areas of adjustment, factors quite impossible to change demand that guidance take the form of discipline. The requirements of physical growth and nutrition, for example, make it necessary for the child to develop regular habits of exercise and rest, and of eating certain kinds and amounts of food. Similarly, our inherited social organization demands of the child a certain amount of conformance in contacts with other individuals. But parallel with this externally determined necessity for conformance, there exists an equally important need for growth in initiative and self-reliance.

There are, fortunately, a number of activities where there are no rigid external standards of behavior. Among these are play, music, art, and literature. This is the group of activities which may be called the "free" as opposed to the "disciplinary" activities. Since so large a part of the young child's training in the early years has to do with the establishment of routine habits, advantage should be taken of every opportunity to encourage his development along lines where freedom and initiative are possible. For many children, music may prove to be one of the important avenues of development along these lines.

Free activities, however, are engaged in because the individual finds pleasure and satisfaction in them. The measure of their value is in terms of individual and personal satisfaction. Right guidance in these activities means, therefore, that they must be allowed to be genuinely free and spontaneous.

Right guidance in music depends fundamentally on two factors:

1. The place music may take in a well-rounded scheme of living.

2. Scientific facts now known concerning the psychology of music.

It has already been suggested that music is a typical free activity. For many children music has something to contribute to personality adjustment. There are children unable to compete in many activities on equal terms with their peers who find an opportunity to attain a position of leadership and renewed self-confidence in music. Music experiences may add to growth in physical control and poise. Efficient walking, running, and skipping are essentially examples of nice rhythmic coordination. Precision and flexibility in speech control are fostered by practice in vocal music. Physical poise almost necessarily transfers over into mental and social poise. Music offers a splendid medium for the development of habits of social cooperation. Through music, a whole group of children may experience the pleasure of cooperative effort in singing, rhythmic activity, and music games. For many individuals, music may continue throughout life to be an extremely satisfying form of free activity.

SCIENTIFIC PSYCHOLOGY OF MUSIC

Scientific psychology has contributed a number of facts which are important for musical guidance. First among these is the fact that individuals are not equally gifted in musical ability. They differ in ability to hear, to attain muscular control, in emotional reaction, and in imaginative and intellectual powers in music. Some children may be very precocious and others very retarded in such simple abilities as carrying a tune or keeping time with music. Some of these abilities have been found to be in-born and to be very resistant to training. To give elaborate training to the child who is not gifted will necessarily prove to be a wasteful process. Too much "forcing" in

the training of such a child may also lead to extreme dislike of music or to personality difficulties.

Musical ability is not a unified thing, but a complex array of many abilities. These abilities tend to be quite independent of one another and an individual's skill varies for different abilities. For example, a person who ranks high in pitch will not necessarily rank high in rhythm. A few individuals are highly gifted in a wide variety of abilities, while a few are very low in all; the majority have "high spots" and "weak points." It is necessary, therefore, to offer guidance within music itself, according to the particular pattern of abilities possessed by each child.

As measured by tests, musical abilities are quite independent of general intelligence. They belong in the class of special abilities.

PRINCIPLES OF MUSICAL GUIDANCE

These considerations lead us to set up three general principles of musical guidance:

1. Inasmuch as music is a typically free activity, freedom and individual choice is the first principle. This means that the responsibility of parents and teachers in music is not so much to direct and modify behavior as it is to provide opportunities for having new experiences and making new choices.
2. The second principle demands the recognition of individual differences in musical capacities and interests. This means that all children cannot be given the same guidance treatment.
3. The third principle is that children grow physically, mentally, and musically. Since children grow musically at different rates, some of them reaching their limit of growth in certain lines at a fairly early age, it is necessary to keep a continuous check on the individual child's progress.

These principles apply in at least five major aspects of musical growth: development in interest in music, in the understanding of music, in power as a critical listener, in creative ability, and in performance.

Musical interest grows through stimulation combined with freedom. Among the problems of musical guidance, the development of interest comes first. For the great majority of persons an interest in simple enjoyment of music, rather than performance or creative activity, will be the most important relationship to music. The most permanent interest comes from having satisfying musical experiences. This involves, in terms of our principles, providing the child with an abundant opportunity for experience in music which is adapted to his level of development, given when he is in a state of readiness for it, and permitting him free choice in music activity.

Musical understanding grows best through actual musical experience, especially through bodily responses. Musical understanding is the appreciation of music in its own terms through sensitiveness to pitch, time, loudness, and tonal quality. One of the chief sources of disinterest in music lies in the fact that individuals have not learned to enjoy or "feel" the simple experience of music in its own right. A very common error of teachers is to attempt to substitute a story or picture interest for true musical feeling.

Music is understood and appreciated in terms of kinaesthetic or muscle responses and in auditory or other imagery. Melody, for example, is a graceful, complete statement in terms of pitch to which we respond by muscle movements, by humming, or by imagining it. It has the power to suggest a mood—peace and calm or effort and excitement. It is a dramatic episode in tone.

Rhythm is even more intimately kinaesthetic than melody. It results in the feeling of balanced and patterned movement and also suggests mood. Dynamics, or the variation and contrast of loudness or power in tones, gives a dramatic sense of development, climax, and a satisfactory close to music. Development of musical understanding almost necessarily depends on actual experience in muscle movement in connection with music.

There is a distinction to be made between liking, or interest, and taste. Interest is

measured in terms of the degree of emotional reaction; so we may speak of a person being totally disinterested, mildly interested, or absorbed in music. Taste is measured in terms of the kind of music a person enjoys; thus we may have a person who is intensely interested in music without having so-called "good taste."

The first essential in the development of taste is really to like something. It is probable that taste depends finally on inborn musical sensitivity and intelligence, but it is also to a very large extent a matter of growth, experience, and information. Most of us can recall in our own musical experience passing through the nursery jingle stage, the brass band stage, the sentimental ballad stage, and so on. Growth in experience almost inevitably results in changes in taste. Merely to have heard a symphony orchestra or a superb voice sets a new standard of tonal quality.

Our tastes are influenced by the amount of information we have about music. The real cheapness of much of the popular music we hear and quickly tire of is that it is made up of musical remnants. Most popular numbers are tags and ends of the "same old stuff," lacking freshness and vitality. Knowing this and making comparisons with new standards set by advancing experience causes us to recognize that which is generally considered second rate.

The development of taste may be encouraged to some extent by suggesting new levels of understanding. There seems to be a time in the child's life when he has little appreciation of tonal beauty. Perhaps a brief suggestion to listen for the pleasant and appropriate in tonal quality may open up a new field of insight to him.

It is quite certain that genuine musical interest and understanding in the young child may often be most quickly developed through creative experience in music. The actual practice of creative expression with

young children is very simple. It means only that the child is encouraged to make up such things as his own rhythmic plays and songs. To add his own distinctive interpretation to music already composed is also a creative art. Simple musical instruments provide an excellent opportunity for the child to create and experiment.

Growth in musical performance must be considered from two standpoints. For the average child, training in performance contributes chiefly to musical understanding and appreciation, for most children will not become musical performers. A small per cent of children can achieve with training sufficient skill to give pleasure to themselves and others. A still smaller per cent will be able to enter music as a profession. For these last two groups a good rule has been given by Professor Seashore in the words "proportion training to talent." For all groups, advancing standards of taste leading to a dissatisfaction with performance at any given level should be the motive for improvement in performance through drill.

The general principles of musical guidance depend on judgment for application to particular cases. If the child shows neither interest nor ability in music, it is necessary to suggest and provide opportunity for other avenues of expression for which he may be better fitted. There are many to choose from—the graphic arts, literature, dramatics, constructive activity such as woodwork and elementary electricity, and so on. From among these, each individual should find something which is right for him. A great gain in general cultural development and personality adjustment is almost certain to follow from a good choice of such activities. Beginning with the pre-school years, it is a fundamental task confronting parents and teachers to assist the child in finding, through actual experience, satisfying channels of free activity.



The mother's heart is the child's schoolroom.—HENRY WARD BEECHER.

The Beginnings of Poetry

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TO MANY of us the suggestion that we nurture children's impulses to poetry comes with a slight uneasiness. No doubt this feeling of ours dates back to our own education in poetry, which was often of a very conventionalized sort. Our generation memorized poetry for "memory gems" in the Elementary School, poetry which often was much too advanced for the learner to appreciate, while the poetry of our high school days concerned itself largely with the techniques of scansion and meter. Unless we were so fortunate as to have homes where poetry was appreciated as a part of living we may easily have missed becoming conscious of the real experience which poetry is.

This modern world, however, is discovering that poetry belonged to life before it belonged to books, that the elements of poetic expression are far older and more fundamental than are certain techniques and conventions with which all Anglo-Saxon poetry has adorned itself. The critics of poetry are telling us that from the time of Whitman's "There Was a Child Went Forth" to Carl Sandberg's "Chicago" there has been a return to fundamentals among the poets themselves. Rhyme, stanza, meter—they are saying these are details of technique; these are accretions and developments in poetry; they are not fundamental.

What, then, are the essentials of poetry? Are they not these—an emotion, rhythmically expressed, in language which communicates that emotion?

Two five-year-old boys were playing in the sandpile with toy bears. To the looker on there was in evidence two toy bears and a small mound of sand. To one of the little boys it was more than this. He communicated his feelings about it in this way:

Here, let's make a big big mountain
For your bear and for my bear.
Here, let's make a big big mountain,
A big, big mountain,
A big, big mountain,
A big, big mountain.

This expression has rhythm. One feels that the child is not at all consciously determining the rhythm of his expression, but that his feeling, his emotion, is determining the rhythm of what he says. This is true. Such rhythm is determined by the rhythmic processes of the body, by the supply and exhaustion of energy. And we, being creatures whose nervous energy ebbs and flows, must express our emotions rhythmically. It cannot be otherwise.

We notice that this child's expression falls into a pattern—monotonous to the adult ear. The thought is repeated over and over in parallels—"a big, big mountain, a big, big mountain, a big, big mountain." All of us who are familiar with children's expressions will recognize this as characteristic. A child, walking, head down against the wind said:

Feel it push me,
Feel it push me,
Feel it push me.

A child wishing to thrust real power into his toy steam roller said:

Big steam rollers coming along
Look! it's flattening the street,
See! it's flattening the street.

A child who had planted a seed which he wished very much to have grow for his mother said:

Little seed, little seed, will you grow?
Please little seed,
Please, will you grow?

Poetic critics tell us that this pattern of repetition in parallels is organic. It is an

exceedingly satisfying pattern and all poetic patterns are really variants of it. It is found in primitive poetry, in Latin and Greek poetry, in Japanese poetry and essentially in Anglo-Saxon poetry both primitive and conventionalized. It is found in what we are pleased to call the beginnings of poetry in children.

Rowland Lewis in his recent book *Creative Poetry* gives us an example. This ancient verse was discovered at Rome in 218 B.C. It is held to ante-date Virgil and Horace.

Let each one in turn call the demi-god
 Let each one in turn call the demi-god
 Let each one in turn call the demi-god
 May Marmour give us aid
 May Marmour give us aid
 May Marmour give us aid
 Triumph
 Triumph
 Triumph
 Triumph
 Triumph

A child said:

The great big flag
 The great big flag
 Soldiers are marching
 Soldiers are marching
 Down the street
 Down the street.

And a child who had climbed very high:

I am a giant.
 I am taller than anybody.
 I am taller than anybody.
 Anybody
 Anybody
 Anybody.

Among the Piute Indians of our Southwest is found this old song:

The cottonwoods are growing tall
 The cottonwoods are growing tall
 The cottonwoods are growing tall.

They are growing tall and verdant
 They are growing tall and verdant
 They are growing tall and verdant.

Here is the expression of a four-year-old child:

Wind is blowing the clothes
 Wind is blowing the clothes.
 Wind, wind, wind,
 Wind blows hard,
 Wind blows hard.

The Oxford Book of English Verse is full of poetry of this pattern. Recall: "Blow Northern Wind," Kingsley's "Sands o' Dee," Tennyson's "Sweet and Low," "The Charge of the Light Brigade," much of Burns and many of Shakespeare's pure lyrics.

While this pattern is varied and elaborated in more subtle art forms, it is also found in the simple parallel repetition so characteristic of children's expression. It is quite universally satisfying. The rhythm of poetry, we may conclude, and especially of strongly emotional poetry, is often expressed in parallel repetitions.

The language of poetry must be the language which communicates emotion. "Poetry," wrote Leigh Hunt, "begins where matter of fact or of science ceases to be merely such and to exhibit a further truth, that is to say, the connection it has with the world of emotion and its power to produce imaginative pleasure." Last spring we were taking a walk to the park. One child remembered that there are streams there—this was a matter of fact. Another child wished to know what makes the streams of water in the park. This was an inquiry of science. But the child who exclaimed, "Oh, shall we sit by the little rivers?" stimulated the imagination and evoked pleasurable emotions. We say she spoke poetically. A little girl of five painting on an easel said as she finished her painting:

These flowers have gone to sleep.
 I am sorry because I wanted them to stay
 awake and see the sun.

A four-year-old, watching polliwogs in a bowl spoke to them. He said:

Polliwog, polliwog,
 How do you like to be
 How do you like to be so little—
 Mossy little frog.

A second four-year-old, watching goldfish swimming among the green moss in the

aquarium asked: "Is that the fish's spinach."

Among a group of five-and-a-half-year old children whose teacher offered to write down anything which they wished to say to their mothers for Mothers' Day these feelings were expressed. To one small boy there was nothing of sentiment necessary, only the opportunity to give his imagination a delightfully entertaining treat. He asked to have written:

My mother's sofa is a galloping one.
When she sits on it it gallops.

The second child asked to have written:

I jump into bed at night.
I see the moon in the sky.
I say, don't be afraid
Because mother's about.

A child of five described his experiences at the beach in so vivid a manner that we all feel with him:

Down at the beach the water goes
Sh——sh——
Sh——sh——s——.
The waves get small
When they come up.
The water comes up in my hole and fills it.
I dig it deeper
And I dig a tunnel
And the water comes up
And comes up.

A child who had been taken by his parents to a lighthouse told about his experience in a way which can scarcely fail to give us all something of the emotion which he experienced:

In the sand I saw the big, big lighthouse.
It made me dizzy.
When I looked up in the air
The clouds were moving.
It made me feel that the lighthouse was falling down.
It made me feel like I might fall down backward.
And I saw the ocean.

The following is illustrative of a child's use of imaginative language. It is the expression of a little girl of five, and belongs to a collection made by Miss Lula Wright of Lincoln School, Columbia University.

I know some children
Way in the west
I know some children
Way in the north
I know some children
They have . . .
They make pretty pictures
They play and hop and skip like aeroplanes.

She gives it to you—the joyousness and abandon of children.

Before and After Summer

Looking forward to the spring
One puts up with anything.
On this February day
Though the winds leap down the street
Wintry scourgings seem but play,
And these later shafts of sleet
—Sharper pointed than the first—
And these later snows—the worst—
Are as a half-transparent blind
Riddled by rays from sun behind.

THOMAS HARDY, *Collected Poems*.

Meeting the Present Emergency in Education

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ALL sorts of reasons have been advanced for the recent attacks on school budgets. A very real reason is the fact that taxpayers have found it difficult to meet the assessments and have blamed the schools primarily, because the school budget was the largest. This is not an attempt to blame or to condone the taxpayers, but to suggest that teachers and school administrators have certain responsibilities in meeting the present situation.

In the first place teachers and more particularly administrators should be accurately informed about the financial condition of their city. It is not enough to "think" that the schools are economically run, to "feel" that your salary is hardly adequate for your preparation and standard of living, that you are not asking for extravagant supplies and that your building is only moderately spacious and could be repainted to advantage. I think this is the general attitude of many public school teachers. These are opinions, ideas, beliefs, but not facts. Every teacher should "know" what the tax rate in her city is, what that means to a parent who owns a house valued at \$5,000, what the mortgage on that house might be and how much a year the interest on such a mortgage would amount to. These are the facts that a taxpaying parent has to face, these are the facts that make him "for" or "against" the school budget in his city. This is the source of much anxiety in the home, anxiety which the children reflect in tense attitudes, nervous reactions, wandering attention. The teacher who would understand her children, must understand what the family is thinking about and how serious the family worries are.

When the teacher has a more accurate picture of what the home-owning parent is facing, she must then find out what part

the school expenses are playing in the parent's problems. How much of the tax dollar goes to the school; how much to school buildings, either for erection or maintenance; how much for supplies; how much for salaries; how much does it cost per year to educate the child in her classroom? The latter figure is usually much lower than parents think it is. If divided to show the cost per day, the figure usually is in the class with the expenditures for luxuries or for amusements, and the thoughtful parent admits that he should spend more for the education of his child than for his auto or his cigars or his movies. We cannot expect parents to figure out these things for themselves, they take public education for granted. It is up to the teachers to collect these facts and to present them to parents, forcefully but not aggressively, sympathetically and yet in defense of the child's right to the best education that his city can give him.

Let us be honest about what the public really thinks about the public school. For every parent who has had a happy experience with a kindly, hard-working, tactful teacher there is another parent who met a teacher too impatient, too arrogant or too baffled to discuss the child's problems in detail. To each child who loves school and goes happily every day, bringing home enthusiastic accounts of what happens there, there is another child who is among the unsuccessful, who is discouraged about his school work or bored with it or giving his real attention and interest to activities outside the school. When financial conditions are steady and reliable, parents accept these shortcomings along with the benefits of education, but when the maintenance of the schools becomes a real hardship to any parent, it is better for us in the teaching profession if we acknowledge our

mistakes and lack of thoughtfulness and start to mend our ways and give the hard-pressed parent full value for his money spent for education.

These are some of the truths that we discovered in Worcester when our school system was suddenly and unexpectedly threatened by a drastic cut in the budget. We had to do much scurrying around to collect the information about taxes and mortgages, school costs and the opinions of taxpayers as to the value received for school ex-

penditures. Fortunately we found much appreciation for the work done by teachers. We found much misunderstanding about school costs but not many charges of extravagance when the facts were known. We found, especially, that every tactful, sympathetic contact made by a teacher with a parent, had helped us to build up a friendliness with the school which became outspoken and convincing when the school system was threatened through its budget curtailment.



There never was a time in the history of America when education was so vital to us as a nation and so essential to us as citizens. Yet strangely enough the friends of education are finding it necessary to go through the land in order to educate the people on the importance of education. Perhaps we have taken our education too much for granted. Like air and light and water, we have come to assume that it is a natural element; that it will always be with us; that it was ours when we were children for the taking, and that it will be theirs for our children in their turn for their taking.

We accumulate wealth; we can pass on to each succeeding generation tangible property in any form. We can even to some extent transmit native ability. But we cannot bequeath an education to our children. The most we can do is to provide them with the means for an education. Every babe that is born into the world is as ignorant as its most remote ancestor. It can neither write nor read. It has only rudimentary mental processes. It merely has reactions and responses to external stimuli. If abandoned to its own fate on an uninhabited island, if it survived at all, it would grow up to be a totally illiterate man and an ignorant one, except as it might learn certain facts of life from its environment and from its experience. Since it is necessary to recreate in each generation those processes of education which the preceding generation enjoyed, we must continue to provide schools and teachers and all the essential tools that go to furnish and equip the mind.

I do not deny that of necessity some economies must be made in our schools. But we are going too far in that direction. If economy is necessary it should be done scientifically, by experts. It serves no good purpose of economy and it is immensely damaging to our educational system to slash into a budget regardless of whether we are cutting into a vital spot or not.

Every child should have an education not only for his own sake but for the good of the whole. The intelligence of a nation is the sum of the intelligences of all of its citizens. Intelligence is the product of education and education is the greatest national asset that we have. No nation in these times can hope to survive, to say nothing of progressing in the arts and the sciences, in commerce, in trade, or in industry, unless it is composed of a well educated citizenry. Least of all can a democracy, depending, as it must depend, upon an informed public opinion for the selection of its leaders and the framing of its laws hope long to endure unless it consists of a highly and universally educated electorate. *The individual American must be educated not only that he may be able to enjoy a happier and fuller life; he must be educated in order that, in cooperation with other educated Americans, he may do his part toward sustaining and upbuilding an intelligent and beneficent and capable government.*

(Extracts from a Radio Address by Hon. Harold L. Ickes, Secretary of the Interior, on the National Education Association Program, October 29, 1933.)

The 1934 Convention at Nashville

GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS joins the city of Nashville, the county of Davidson and the entire south in extending its hospitality and warmest welcome to the members of the Association for Childhood Education to visit Nashville, Tennessee during this year of our Lord, 1934.

There is no lovelier season in Middle Tennessee than early May. It is the flowering time of the year and the surrounding country is not unlike rural England.

We are keenly anticipating all that the Association may mean to pre-school education and modern elementary schools in the South.

Adjacent to George Peabody College for Teachers is Vanderbilt University Campus with its Liberal Arts College, its School of Nursing and well-known School of Medicine. In the same neighborhood is Scarritt College, a school for religious workers, the Y. M. C. A. Graduate School and Ward-Belmont, a well established private school for girls.

Negro education has two advanced institutions in Nashville—The State A. & I.

College and Fisk University both doing outstanding work.

Centennial Park holds the Parthenon, a remarkable replica of the Temple of Athena in old Greece. This is an achievement in the art world to which thousands of visitors come annually.

Andrew Jackson's lovely country estate, The Hermitage, is only a short motor trip from Nashville. Its integrity has been preserved to an unusual degree by a group of Nashville women known as the Ladies Hermitage Association.

These and many other attractions we offer you in your visit to the old South which is fast passing into the new South with its Tennessee Valley Experiment and its controlled cotton and tobacco acreage.

In the midst of these changes there remains constant the hospitality of the old South. None of these outward attractions can quite match the warm personal welcome that awaits you from our people.

LUCY GAGE

*Professor of Elementary Education
George Peabody College*



The Library, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee



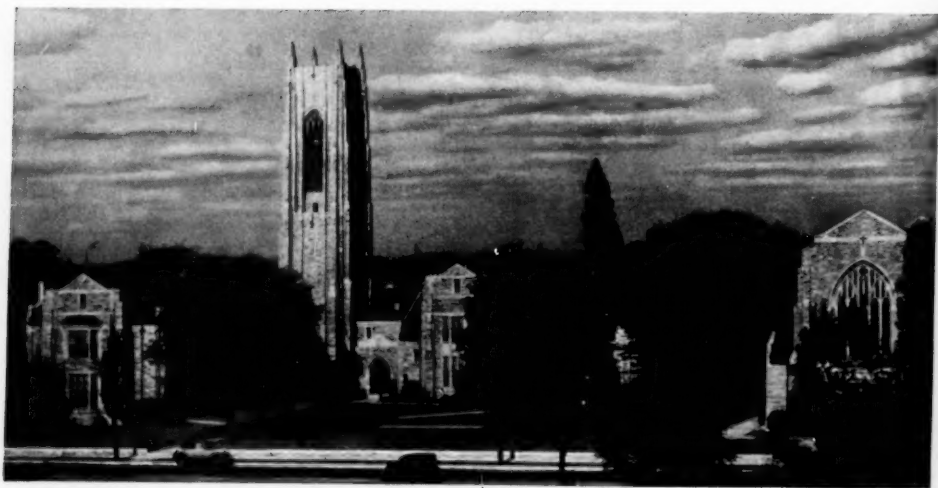
One of Vanderbilt University's many beautiful buildings,
Nashville, Tennessee.



Administration Buildings—Ward-Belmont College, Nashville, Tennessee.



The Hermitage—the home of Andrew Jackson, the 7th President of the U. S.,
Nashville, Tennessee.



Scarritt College for Christian Workers, Nashville, Tennessee.

National Council of Childhood Education

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE, CLEVELAND, OHIO

PARTICIPATING GROUPS

Association for Childhood Education: Edna Dean Baker, President

National Association for Nursery Education, Mary Dabney Davis, President

FIRST SESSION

Luncheon Conference

Monday, Feb. 26, 12:00-2:00, Rainbow Room, Carter Hotel

Presiding, Edna Dean Baker, President, National College of Education, Evanston, Illinois, and President, Association for Childhood Education.

I. *The Relationship of Nursery Schools to Public Education*

Harold Anderson, Iowa Child Welfare Research Center and Vice-President, National Association for Nursery Education.

II. *Research Needs in the Kindergarten—Primary Field*

Elizabeth L. Woods, Director, Department of Educational Research and Guidance Public Schools, Los Angeles, California.

III. *Actual Practices in the Primary Grades, 1933-34*

Ruth Streitz, Professor of Education, University of Cincinnati.

SECOND SESSION

Joint Meeting with the Department of Superintendence

Wednesday, Feb. 28, 2:00-4:00, Rainbow Room, Carter Hotel

Presiding, Mary Dabney Davis, Specialist in Nursery, Kindergarten, Primary Education, United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C., and President, National Association for Nursery Education.

The Importance of Early Childhood Education

I. *Does Education in Early Childhood Make a Difference?*

Arnold Gesell, Director, Clinic of Child Development, Yale University, New Haven, Connecticut.

II. *The Responsibility of Public Education for the Young Child*

John A. Sexson, Superintendent of Schools, Pasadena, California.

III. *The Citizen's Responsibility for the Support of Early Childhood Education*

(Speaker to be announced)

NEWS FROM HEADQUARTERS

MARY E. LEEPER

NEWS OF THE ASSOCIATION

FIRST A.C.E. BULLETIN FOR 1934

The Association for Childhood Education is most fortunate in having Professor Patty Smith Hill of Teachers College, Columbia University, edit the first educational bulletin for this year. The material in this monograph, *The Practical Value of Early Childhood Education* has been prepared, under the direction of Miss Hill, by the members of the faculty and by students of Teachers College.

Through a series of case studies, followed by brief discussions, the objectives and some results of nursery, kindergarten, primary education are convincingly developed. All those who read this 32 page monograph will be lead to a clearer understanding of how schools for young children contribute to normal and wholesome development of the child at the different age levels. The monograph will suggest to teachers ways in which they may explain to the citizens in their communities what the school actually does for the young child.

Copies of this bulletin have been sent free to all contributing members and to the president and secretary of all State Associations and Local Branches affiliated with the national A.C.E. for 1933-34. Others desiring copies may secure them by writing to

Association for Childhood Education
1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington,
D.C.

Price — \$.25

Postage—\$.03.

NEW CONTRIBUTING MEMBERS

From September 1, 1932 to December 15, 1932 the Association had 259 new members. This year over the same period 370 new contributing members have joined the Association. This gain demonstrates that, in spite of decreased salaries, heavy personal responsibilities and increased school work, teachers are more interested than ever in professional development.

NEW A.C.E. BRANCHES

On December 15th, 1932, there were 2 new Branches enrolled. This year on December 15

we have seven new Branches. Two of these were listed in the December journal, the others are as follows:

Childhood Education Council of Northern Illinois, State Teachers College. Miss Virginia Gould, Pres., 501 Lucinda Ave., DeKalb, Illinois

Brookline Kindergarten League. Miss Alice M. Wyman, Pres., 370 Chestnut Hill Ave., Brookline, Massachusetts

Saint Louis County Association for Childhood Education. Miss Norma L. White, Sec'y., 605 Clara Ave., St. Louis, Missouri

Primary Council of Bonham Public Schools. Miss Idris Evans, Pres., 320 W. 6th St., Bonham, Texas

Stevens County Primary Council. Miss Mary E. Robinson, Pres., 159 N. Elm St., Colville, Washington

Teachers are rapidly realizing that organizations have far greater power for accomplishment of purposes than the same number of individuals, working separately, can possibly have. One need only read the Branch reports that come to Headquarters to discover that teachers are finding fun and help and inspiration in the Branch meetings.

KNOW YOUR A.C.E. COMMITTEE

Chapter IV—The Association has a committee constantly working on the problems of Teacher Training. Winifred Bain of Teachers College, Columbia University, is the Chairman of this Committee. Here is her statement of the purposes of this Committee for 1933-34: "The Committee proposes to continue the work of the past two years on standards to be obtained in the curricula for the preparation of Nursery, Kindergarten, and Primary teachers, who can meet present-day needs. The needs of workers engaged in teacher training will be surveyed so that materials already collected by

the Committee may be formulated for practical application in this field." If any of our readers have special problems on the subject of Teacher Training, Dr. Bain will be glad to help you with those problems.

FIRST LIFE MEMBER FOR 1933-34

On September 1st, 1933, we had 72 names on our list of Life Members. The first name to be added for 1933-34 is that of our President, Miss Edna Dean Baker.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

WOMEN'S INTERNATIONAL LEAGUE

A recent release from the Women's International League asks for the help and cooperation of teachers. Their statement follows:

"We are in need of teachers committed to a program of world peace and friendship. Our educational department is making a study of appropriate material and hopes to organize it into a form, attractive and usable in the classroom. We should be delighted to hear from teachers who have already successfully used such material. We are searching for songs, stories, plays, pictures, informal dramatizations and posters adapted to the various age levels. When the results of this study are available teachers may secure free copies from the Women's International League, 1924 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania."

A prize of \$25.00 will be given for the most valuable material sent in not later than April 1, 1934.

PRE-SCHOOLS OF THE U.S. AND THE U.S.S.R.

In a recent release from the Office of Education Dr. Abel, Chief of the Foreign Schools System Division, compares the school population of the United States of America with that of the United States of Soviet Russia. Here is a part of his statement:

"The United States reports 23,482,000 children in elementary schools. The Soviet reports 24,000,000 in elementary schools.

The United States reports 770,000 children in pre-schools. The Soviet reports 7,000,000 in pre-schools.

RADIO PROGRAM

Are you listening to the radio programs broadcast each Sunday evening from 6:30 to 7:00 P.M. EST on the networks of the National Broadcasting Company? Speakers for January and February include Lowell Thomas, Henry Harriman, Fiorella La Guardia, Sidney Morse and others that you will not want to miss hear-

ing. If the station of the National Broadcasting Company which serves your community does not include this program on its Sunday evening schedule write to the manager of the station and suggest that it be broadcast in your territory. Write letters of commendation to the stations now sending out these programs.

GOOD WILL DAY

Since the year 1923 Good Will Day has been fittingly observed on or near May eighteenth by many schools and communities in the United States. Forty-four other countries observe this day and the significance of the movement is apparent not only to school people but to the general public. The purpose of the observance of this day is to promote and emphasize neighborliness and friendship among the nations. It is a definite effort to replace battle ships with friendships. The World Federation of Education Associations, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., will gladly send you suggestions for programs for this special day. Please enclose postage with your request.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK, 1933

The observance of American Education Week was most successful. Thirty-three governors issued American Education Week proclamations. The Division of Publications of the National Education Association distributed more than two million pieces of literature to approximately 3,500 communities from which the requests came.

Judging by the number of orders for the special kindergarten-primary packet for American Education Week, the occasion was very generally observed in kindergartens and primary grades. Mr. Joy Elmer Morgan of the Journal of the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., will greatly appreciate your comments on this material, used for the first time this year, and will particularly welcome suggestions concerning a similar packet for 1934.

BOOK REVIEWS

Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

A reference book in natural science.—To the constantly increasing number of interesting and authentic reference books in natural science, a valuable addition has recently been made. The authors of this book¹ have evidently attempted to prepare unusually readable material and they certainly have succeeded. While the presentation is adapted to "nine year olds and older" the content cannot fail to be of service to the teachers of children of varying ages. The charm of the work is discovered in its introduction which is addressed to the boy and girl readers:

Sometime in your life you have gone visiting. If you went to a strange city, a cousin or an uncle or someone else at once wanted to show you the town. You were taken to see everything that was new and strange and interesting.

This book wants to "show you the world." It will show you many places you have never been. It will show you some places no one has ever been. And now and then, when you wonder why the earth is the way it is, and where it came from, the book will take you back to the world as it was thousands of millions of years ago, before anybody was alive to see it.

You need not try to believe everything that is in this book. It tries to tell you the truth. But what, to-day, we think is true, some one will learn more about tomorrow. When we started to make this book, there were only eight worlds like our earth that any one knew about. Then another was discovered and the book had to be changed.

This is the way it has always been with books. The story that this one tells you is the truest that we know now. If you find parts of it hard to believe, make up your mind that some day you will find out for yourself whether or not they are true—and perhaps write a better book than this.

Fifty-eight chapters, divided under four main headings, tell in this same frank and naïve, non-technical style the "Story of the Earth," the story of our "Neighbors in the Sky," the story of "The Stars," and "How We Found Out These Things." This last part de-

scribes the growth of scientific knowledge from Aristotle to the present. And the last chapter tells about some of the things that scientists are trying to find out now. Such problems as these are listed: Where did the first life come from? Why can't we make living things from the elements that we know are in them? What is the inside of our earth like? What makes changes in the weather? What effect have sun spots upon these changes? How big is our universe?

It is easy to be enthusiastic about this book. The authors have presented a wealth of information which should help to satisfy the present-day child's thirst for knowledge about the universe in which he lives. And they have not stopped there. They have presented this thrilling content so as to stimulate wonder about it all, so as to develop a questioning attitude, and so as to initiate creative thinking and independent investigation.

ADA R. POLKINGHORNE
The University of Chicago

Realistic stories.—Kindergarten-primary teachers have long felt the need for more realistic stories suitable for young children, and *Told Under the Blue Umbrella*² is a collection of such stories planned to meet this need. The stories include reprints of such favorites as *Pelle's New Suit* by Elsa Beskow, *Angus and the Ducks* by Marjorie Flack, *Seven White Cats* by Alice Dalgliesh, and three of the liveliest chapters from Margery Clark's *Poppy Seed Cakes*. These alone make the book worth possessing.

Of the new material, *Paddy's Three Pets* by Mary G. Phillips is an altogether delightful tale. This instantly became a favorite with some two thousand children when this reviewer presented it by radio. The same is true of Peggy Bacon's irresistible *Pony With a Past*. *The Dinner Bell* is another good story.

Too much of the remaining material suggest language work with children rather than literature. The lack of action, the cataloguing type of descriptions, the dullness of rhymes, vocabu-

¹ Carleton Washburne and Heluis Washburn, in collaboration with Frederick Reed, *The Story of Earth and Sky*. New York: Century Company, 1933. Pp. x+368. \$3.50.

² The Association for Childhood Education, Committee on Literature, *Told Under the Blue Umbrella*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933. \$2.00.

lary, and plot patterns make many of the pseudo-stories extremely infantile.

In a generation when we no longer talk baby talk to children, when we are exposing them to music and art that is genuine and lovely, it is curious to see this continued reversion in literature to the child's limited vocabulary and to childish patter. Mediocrity in literature is no more help to development than the saccharine mediocrity we used to present in music. The child's reading level is no criterion for his appreciation level. Enjoyment should run two or three years ahead of reading skill and literature should meet the former and not be retarded by the latter.

There is enough good material for story telling in this book to delight the nursery school, kindergarten and first grade teachers. Many of the stories will become favorites with the children and teachers should be genuinely grateful to the A.C.E. for supplementing their needs for more good realistic literature.

MAY HILL ARBUTHNOT
Western Reserve University

A functional approach to educational psychology.—The improvement of conduct is education. This is the central theme of a recent volume³ in educational psychology. The authors' adoption of this theme necessitated the assumption by them of a functional attitude toward educational psychology. This book, therefore, incorporates, almost exclusively, material that is functional in nature.

Part I traces the individual's development in modern society. Physical and physiological bases of conduct are discussed with special reference to their use and direction. The introductory content on neurology which is customarily found in elementary texts in educational psychology has been omitted because the authors doubt "whether or not such elementary knowledge of physiology and neurology is of any practical importance in understanding the underlying general principles of human conduct" (p. 22). Other chapters of Part I are devoted to:

1. A discussion of growth and types of mental functions.
2. A genetic study of individual motivation and interest.
3. A treatment of socialization as individual development.

³ Francis F. Powers and Willis L. Uhl, *Psychological Principles of Education*. New York: The Century Company, 1933. Pp. xviii + 570.

The authors prefatorially outline the contents of the remaining parts of the book as follows:

Part II presents analyses of the teaching process and indicates the relation of the teacher to pupils of varying capacities and other characteristics. These analyses are accompanied by applications to classroom situations. . . . Part III sets forth psychological problems of curricula at the different levels of schooling and their relation to what is acquired outside the school. . . . In Part IV, on the psychology of conduct, attention is given to problems of normality and abnormality.

The treatment of a number of topics, particularly that of motivation, is more extensive and more fully supported by research data than are the treatments of the same topics presented in other textbooks of educational psychology. The discussions on the psychology of learning in the different school subjects, however, could profitably be extended. On the whole, the book is well-balanced, clearly written, and free from technical terms. Although designed primarily for use as a text in first-year courses in educational psychology in universities, colleges, and normal schools, it should prove to be an asset to the professional libraries of teachers and administrators in active service.

HERMAN G. RICHEY
The University of Chicago

Genuine poetry for children.—Eleanor Farjeon's poems for children are not as well known as they should be. They are not humorous, nor as easily read as some of our more popular poets of today, but turning over her pages you come upon bits of loveliness and an unexpected note that is authentic poetry.

*Over the Garden Wall*¹ contains a fairly wide range of poems, beginning with such simple chants for the youngest children as:

MOON COME OUT
Moon-Come-Out
And Sun-Go-In,
Here's a soft blanket
To cuddle your chin.

Moon-Go-In
And Sun-Come-Out,
Throw off the blanket
And bustle about.

On the whole, however, the most charming of these poems are for the child of eight, or nine,

¹ Eleanor Farjeon, *Over the Garden Wall*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1933. \$1.75.

or older. "Pulling Down the House" has a haunting quality as haunting as the old house itself. The last two verses are:

That was the parlor
With the cream-and-yellow scrawls,
That was the bedroom
With the roses on the walls,
There's a dark red lining
In the room they had for dining,
And a brown one, rather shining,
Goes all up the halls.

But where is the lady
In a pretty gown?
Where is the baby
That used to crow and frown?
Oh, the rooms look so little,
The house looks so brittle,
And no one cares a title
If it all tumbles down.

These verses are typical examples of Eleanor Farjeon's ability to suggest a mood not only by

way of her words, but also by her rhythmical pattern and tone color. The last verse of "Heigh-Ho, April" illustrates the same point and shows also her fondness for using names.

So heigh-ho!
Let the rain fall,
Let April shiver within a lace shawl!
Wallflower is breaking,
And tulip is waking
And arabis shaking her snow on the wall.
Fan of the lupin is spread like a star,
Blade of the iris stands up like a spar,
Spear of the hyacinth shatters the shield
That hardened the bosom of garden and field.

This book tempts quotation. "Joseph Fell A-Dreaming," "Smoke," "The Fir Tree" and many others are choice additions to the field of genuine poetry for children.

MAY HILL ARBUTHNOT
Western Reserve University

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

PRIMARILY FOR TEACHERS

CONUS, ESTHER.

Protection of Motherhood and Childhood in the Soviet Union. Translated by Vera Fediaevsky. Moscow-Leningrad: Peoples Commissariat of Health of the R.S.F.S.R., 1933. Pp. 117.

DALE, EDGAR.

How to Appreciate Motion Pictures. A Manual of Motion-Picture Criticism Prepared for High School Students. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933. Pp. xi+243. \$1.20.

HEATON, KENNETH L.

The Character Emphasis in Education. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. ix+415. \$3.00.

SCHWESINGER, GLADYS C.

Heredity and Environment. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1933. Pp. viii+484. \$4.00.

Teaching the Social Studies in Grades One, Two and Three. Memphis, Tennessee: State Teachers College and Memphis Public Schools, 1933. Pp. 89.

WOEFEL, NORMAN.

Molders of the American Mind. A Critical Review of the Social Attitudes of Seventeen Leaders in American Education. New York: Columbia University Press, 1933. Pp. xii+304. \$3.00.

PRIMARILY FOR CHILDREN

D'AULAIRE, INGRI AND EDGAR PARIN.

The Conquest of the Atlantic. New York: The Viking Press, 1933. Pp. 55. \$2.50.

NAUMBURG, ELSA H., LAMBERT, CLARA, AND MITCHELL, LUCY SPRAGUE.

Skyscraper. New York: The John Day Company, 1933. Pp. 80. \$2.00.

ROBINSON, LINCOLN FAY.

Jack's House. New York: The Viking Press, 1933. Pp. vi+258. \$2.00.



(Continued from page 239)

sonality factors, poor methodology, eye muscle imbalance and many other factors. In the third place there is no evidence that eye preference as commonly determined is related to cerebral dominance and its relationship to handedness is largely con-
 jec-

tural. Finally, modern thinking is away from localization of such functions as "reading levels."

The opinions advanced by Orton and Dearborn are commendable as hypotheses but they are not theories and even less are they facts.

AMONG THE MAGAZINES

Editor, ELLA RUTH BOYCE

Educational Administration and Supervision in its November issue has, as its leading article "The Task of Education in a Period of Rapid Social Change" by William C. Bagley. Dr. Bagley points out that so much has already been written on this subject that any one who makes another contribution should be sure he has something new to say. As his traditional position has been that of disagreeing with most of his fellow-workers, he feels that he may be able to point out some of the poor advice that has been given to education on this topic. He reviews the events that have led many students of education to question seriously some of the values which have been held and then moves on to consider some of the suggestions which are now current, to meet present day difficulties. The first he calls, the Social-Science Panacea and he defines it thus, "If the present dominant generation had had proper instruction in sociology and economics it would not have permitted the world to get into its present mess. Hence, if we instruct the coming generation in these sciences we can safeguard society against further disasters." He recognizes the plausibility of this argument but believes that it would be a mistake to overemphasize them at the expense "of the more exact and exacting studies" because of our inability to predict the changes which may occur in social problems.

The next plan he discusses is what he calls, The Planless-Curriculum Panacea, and also the activity curriculum. He says that it is based on three beliefs, all of which he refutes to his own satisfaction at least. They are: "First, the notion that there are no eternal verities"; Second, "that capitalists have dictated the curricula of the lower schools in their own selfish interests"; Third, "the contention that one must never learn anything unless one has a yearning for learning." It does seem that Dr. Bagley has set up as straw men, which he proceeds to demolish, certain ideas which are certainly not to be found anywhere as accomplishments, though possibly they might be found as implications or tendencies.

The final plan which he discusses is what he calls "The Curriculum-Revision Jamboree" which has produced "no fewer than thirty-five thousand curricula on file in the curriculum library of Teachers College, Columbia University." In opposition this wide-spread expression of individual initiative in this country, he cites the achievements in France on the basis of a single elementary-school curriculum common to the country as a whole and changed only slightly from decade to decade. These are "a command of the mother tongue for which our schools strive in vain"; "the per-capita consumption of solid reading-matter is much higher than with us"; since the establishment of universal education in 1880, there has been a steady decrease in crime. There has also been a steady decrease in social diseases, a decrease in the proportion of illegitimate births to the total population, a decrease in deaths and mental disease traceable to alcoholism. Still another achievement: "Every outstanding political leader since the establishment of the Third Republic has been a distinguished scholar." If these can be, as Dr. Bagley indicates, ascribed solely or chiefly to the system of education, society is much less complicated than has been generally thought. Finally he gives a simple suggestion. "I recommend an arduous cultivation of sales resistance to educational sure-alls and nostrums." Advice which he will surely wish to extend to his own.

The same journal carries an article by Pamela Leigh Peck of the University of Texas on "The Use of Drawings in Predicting the School Achievement of Beginning Children." The author is concerned with the importance of an understanding of a child's ability so that the school program may be adapted to it and recognizes that intelligence tests furnish a partial solution of the problem. In this connection she calls attention to the fact that many of these tests make use of the child's drawings and gives as examples, Gesell's tests for infants, the Minnesota Pre-school Scale, the Stanford Binet and Miss Goodenough's test—

the drawing of a man. The reason for this use she says is "that, in the young child, there exists a close relationship between neuro-muscular development and general intelligence, and also between the development of concepts and general intelligence." She explains how the child's power to draw develops and shows how it requires both neuro-muscular coordination and ability to analyze a design. The following steps are found as a child develops: "First, the scribbling stage; second a transition stage when the child begins to ascribe names to scribbled lines; third, the formalized or schematic representation; and lastly the stage at which he becomes more analytical and adds details to his formula." These are all discussed in some detail and it is interesting to compare these modern scientific statements with what Froebel wrote of the development of drawing with the young child and marvel at his vision. She discusses Dr. Goodenough's test of drawing a man at some length and then speaks of her own work in which she is seeking to extend this technique, to secure greater reliability and eliminate the necessity for using language. She quotes several interesting theories in regard to children's drawings and says in summary, "Further research is needed to determine more accurately the usefulness of children's drawings for the prediction of school achievement."

In the same journal Oscar E. Hertzberg of State Teachers College, Buffalo, writes on "The Possible 'Halo' Effect of Personality on Practice Teaching Grades." This article calls attention to the fact that most studies in this field show a low correlation between scholarship and intelligence on the one hand and practice teaching on the other. He reports a study of fifty-eight cases which shows that what may be called personality qualities receive one-third of the weight of the practice teaching grade. He says, "The degree to which personality should be considered is probably the most debatable of all questions in our entire teacher-teaching program. However it does seem reasonable to suppose that intelligence, scholarship and training do contribute to the making of a successful teacher."

In *The New Era in Home and School* for November, Dr. William E. Blatz writes on "Discipline." Dr. Blatz calls attention to the fact that the state safeguards the public weal in many other matters but to a large extent neglects to do so in the matter of the discipline given children. Any adult feels himself compe-

tent to act in this matter. He then gives his concept of discipline, not as a set of rules but rather as a philosophy of living, a way. Of rules, he says, "They constitute guide posts for the unintelligent" and that "So often strictness and rigidity are more or less efficient masks for stupidity." He then proceeds to discuss a scheme of discipline under three heads:

1. "The acceptance of a philosophy of life.
2. A means of teaching this philosophy.
3. A means of administering the process of learning."

Of the first he says, "The acceptance of a philosophy is more important than the specific philosophy involved." Behaviour consists of a series of consecutive acts and "experience in life is the envisaging of the consequence of acts." He believes that the particular "ceremony, and cant and dogmatism" are unimportant but it is important that the individual has "the willingness to accept the consequences of his acts no matter what they may be." This leads to judgment as to what an individual shall do and this leads us to the consideration of the means to be employed to teach this philosophy. The first step is to teach the child to accept responsibility. This entails "a careful gauging of the growth and maturity of the child and then arranging so that he must accept responsibility thereto." As illustrations at different stages he gives the following; "An infant can decide whether he wishes to eat or not; if he does not eat he goes hungry. A child can decide whether he wishes to play with a companion or not. A youth can decide whether he wishes to spend his allowance or save it." So that those who deal with children may know how and when the children are ready for these decisions he says it is important that they should study infancy, childhood and youth. "Rules and regulations cannot be substituted for lack of knowledge." He next discusses how to help the child foresee the consequences of his acts. The aim is to arrange the environment so that the child will learn quickly and accurately to anticipate consequences.

In the physical world consequences are immediate, inevitable, invariable and graduated, so that a child learns certain necessary adjustments quickly. The consequences of social adjustments do not meet these four characteristics. He says, "if we think of the concept of punishment we find that seldom can it be immediate; it is never inevitable, it cannot be invariable, and it is only very artificially gradu-

ated." So here, "The very idea of punishment is foreign to this scheme because we are dealing with a learning process and not a moral phenomenon." So he gives two questions which should be asked before dealing with any mistakes which children have made. First, "Has this child had an opportunity of learning an acceptable form of adjustment to this situation?"; secondly, What can I as a parent or teacher do to help this child eliminate this unusual form of adjustment and substitute for it one that is more acceptable?" He believes that the practices which these two questions would induce would make child training a much more interesting occupation and life much more comfortable for children.

The Journal of Educational Psychology for November has an article on "An Experiment in Individual Training of Pitch-Deficient Children" by Manuel Wolner and W. H. Pyle. This is a report of an experiment made by the authors in the schools of Detroit. The subjects were seven pupils who had been under music instruction in the schools of Detroit for five, six, or seven years and who had not learned to distinguish one pitch from another, and of course could not sing. There were three boys and four girls. The problem was to see whether they could be taught these things. The methods are explained and then this summary given—"We have taken seven of the worst pitch-deficient pupils found in three Detroit elementary schools, and by three months of training in which we used the piano, tuning forks, and vocal exercises, have trained them to distinguish pitch with considerable accuracy and to sing." This result should be a great stimulus to more careful work, earlier, with all children so that from the kindergarten up the children are helped to recognize pitch differences.

Parents for December has an interesting article on "How the Young Child Learns" by Lois Hayden Meek and Catherine Brackett. Written primarily for *Parents* it is so directly and simply presented that it is of great value.

Child Study devotes its December issue to Curiosity—The Urge to Ask Why. The article and their authors are, "Wondering and Asking Why" by Rhoda Harris; "Learning by Experience" by Caroline Pratt; "See What I've Made" by Gertrude M. Abbuhl; "Curiosity as a Symptom" by Dudley D. Shoenfeld; "Sex

Questions—Asked and Unasked" by Benjamin C. Gruenberg; "Reading Between the Lines" by Cecile Pilpel; and "Riding, a Hobby at College." These give a theoretical and practical survey of the matter of curiosity pointing out its possible abuses and its values.

The December *Survey Graphic* under the general topic Minds on the March—What Have We Learned from Hard Times has an article on "Education for What?" by Lyman Bryson. The author gives no answer to this question but does place it before us with clearness of detail. He points out the plight in which the recent graduates of our High Schools find themselves and feels that it is particularly hard for them to have gone from the school atmosphere where they were of so much importance into a place where he finds there is "nothing to replace the occupation of getting an education." For he says of them "The new crop of the last four years went through a period of considerable change in education itself. When they were in kindergarten it was still a privilege to go through the high school. By the time they were ready to move on, it had become a duty." He speaks of the new scientific studies which had made the individual seem of more importance, the institution of vocational guidance, summing it all up, by saying, "that the graduates of 1930 to 1933 have received more reason to suppose that the world was created to please them than have any previous generations." College graduates have the same feeling of frustration and are more articulate. What they want, he says, is a chance to work. "Here we have then a generation scarred deep with an experience that can be counted on to produce results in the future. These millions of new citizens are the spearhead of a demand that economic security be a responsibility of government." He then discusses what educational leadership is doing at the moment and quotes from the symposium of Dewey, Kilpatrick, Bode, Childs, and others to show there is interest and activity. But ahead lies no certainty. He says, "The struggle ahead is the often mentioned race between education and disaster, but it will probably be disguised as a struggle between education and renewed complacency." What part teachers will play can not be predicted but "There are a million teachers in the United States and they are tired of taking full responsibility for the future without having a voice as to what sort of a future it shall be."

Child Development in its September quarterly issue has an article on "Some Factors and Characteristics of Childhood Memories" by George J. and Martha M. Dudycha. This is a study made with college students and the method of giving it, with many interesting cases, is given. We will give here only a summary of the conclusions. "There seems to be a tendency for those individuals in the upper quartile of intelligence to report earlier memories than those reported by individuals less favored intellectually." The majority of childhood memories date back to the third and fourth years of life. Fear, joy, and anger appear the most frequently in childhood memories. Wonder and curiosity, sorrow and disappointment, pain, shame and guilt are also reported.

There are some slight sex differences in the different emotions. One hundred and twenty-nine students contributed to the study and 233 memories were reported.

"Friendships and Quarrels among Pre-School Children" by Elise Hart Green presents a study made at the University of Minnesota. The study is given in detail, but we will quote only the practical implications which the author suggests. "Parents and teachers need not take children's quarrels too seriously or emphasize them by prohibitions, because quarreling is a socializing agent and enmities are not likely to result. Play that includes quarreling and making up, is excellent training and probably teaches children to minimize their grievances and to be good sports."

After Snowfall

There is only miracle,
There is vanishing,
Softly, softly, softly,
Everything,
The old propped fence
The barn tonight,
Covered, covered, in a dream
Softly white. . . .

I could walk on quiet feet
In the world's white name,
I could bow on every street
To everything the same.

I could say on every street
To anything and all
A white dream changed you
Snow has come to fall,
A white dream changed you
Snow has come to fall. . . .

My heart is warm and strange
And beautiful tonight,
Like each branch, each bough, each tree,
White, white, white.

ELEANOR O'ROURKE KOENIG, in *Two On An Old Pathway*.

RESEARCH ABSTRACTS

Editor, ELIZABETH MOORE MANWELL

An investigation, which seems to the present writer to be a very significant contribution to education, comes to us from Teachers College of Columbia University. It is entitled *Administration of Enrichment to Superior Children in the Typical Classroom*, and its author is Dr. J. Edgar Dransfield.¹

The purpose underlying the study is to find out what can be done for the gifted child in the average class room. As the author indicates in his introduction "in the conventional school with forty or more pupils in a room, a teacher too often disregards ability lines except in the crudest way. And the superior child, because he is able to meet the class-room situation without centering the teacher's attention on himself, suffers seriously by being permitted to drift along far below his maximum ability level." But "the teacher is teaching so many subjects and is so confined by a course of study with final examinations as an objective, that she has no time for ability grouping. She has too little energy left at the end of the day to master the subject matter in all the fields in which she works, or to be able to judge what is enrichment for her group and prepare enrichment material so as to bring out the greatest possibilities in the superior pupil."

Dr. Dransfield then indicates the two main possibilities for providing for the needs of the superior child, one, that of having him skip grades, and the other, providing for his enrichment as part of his regular class-room work.

It is now well recognized, I think, that to have the very bright child skip up a grade or two, or even three, is not always a solution for his needs. Such skipping may force him into companionship way beyond his level of social maturity. It forces him through school at a very early age, thus depriving him of educational advantages to which he has a just right. It may lead him to attitudes of stress and strain, of worry, of insecurity, or of undue awareness of his own precocity.

The other alternate, that of enriching the

child's curriculum within the class room to which he is socially and physically fitted to be, is a method which has been and is being tried in many of our progressive schools, but never before, as far as I know, with such careful check on the results of such attempts at enrichment as this study offers.

The plan here is as follows: 184 pairs of children from the third, fifth, and seventh grades of several public school systems were selected on the basis of intelligence; that is, all had an intelligence quotient of 110 or more and an educational quotient of 100 or more. The two children in each pair were carefully matched with reference to intelligence quotient, educational quotient, and educational age.

Then, after equating the pairs, one child from each pair was placed in the Experimental Group, and the other in the Control Group, and thus a total of 368 children were studied. The next step was to make an educational profile, by means of standard achievement tests, of each pupil in the experimental group. This individual profile determined the amount of time each individual child was to be allowed to devote to the study of the "enrichment units" on which the investigation was based. If the pupil was one year beyond his grade norm in any specific subject, he was excused from recitation one period a week to work upon the enrichment unit. If he was two years beyond his norm, two periods were dropped, and so on, with the qualification, however, that the total time devoted to the enrichment unit should not exceed one-fifth of his school time.

The enrichment units were materials centering around the following subjects:

For the third grade: "The Other People of the World: A Trip Around the World with Fairy Tales and Folk Law."

For the fifth grade: "How the Early Immigrants to America Met and Overcame the Difficulties and Dangers of a New World and Developed an Interesting Civilization Which We Call 'Colonial Life.'"

For the seventh grade: "How and Why Man has Moved About from Place to Place

¹ Dransfield, J. Edgar. "Administration of Enrichment to Superior Children in the Typical Classroom." New York City: Columbia University Teachers College Contributions to Education. No. 558. 1933. Pp. 107.

and the Changes that Have Been Brought About by these Movements."

Notebooks, constructive activities, and ways of contributing to the interests of the other children in the class were included with each unit of work.

After the children were paired, both groups were given an Inventory Test devised to find out the amount of knowledge each group already had regarding the subject matter of the enrichment material. Then the Experimental children were given the enrichment materials, individually, with an explanation by the teacher which included this in part:

"James, you seem to do your (Geography, English, etc.) without much effort. . . I have something which I think you will like to do in the extra time which you have. How would you like to be excused from (subject) (one or more) days a week and have this time free to work on this other work? You can work on it as fast or as slowly as you desire, during your free period(s), after school, and evenings, as you like, but try to have it finished by (date). The booklet will tell you just what you are to do. . ."

No such encouragement or suggestion was given to the children in the Control Group, although the materials were in many class rooms available to them if they asked for them.

After a semester of such individual work for the Experimental Group all the children were given another form of the Inventory Test. Then an analysis was made of the scores of all the children who had taken both forms of the test; it was found, when all the irregulars were omitted, that there were 170 pairs having complete records. The results of these tests and of the children's regular educational achievements tests led to these conclusions:

1. It was found that the recitation time of superior pupils could be reduced in one or more specific subjects without injury to their regular studies.
2. Enrichment administered to the Experimental Group created and maintained interest to a considerable degree and led to a much higher score on the test covering information gained on the enrichment materials than the Control Group made.
3. The children in Experimental Group, in addition to what they gained on the enrichment materials, maintained the grade standards set by the groups in which they were working.

On the basis of these data the author makes the following recommendations:

1. The enrichment offered through this technique is administratively possible in the present typical class-room unit. It obviates the necessity of classification or the withdrawing of superior children from their social unit to form special classes.
2. Enrichment units should be available in large numbers, covering many fields of learning and vocations.
3. The needs of the pupil should be determined as early as possible and a course of enrichment should be laid out to cover his entire school career, making such adjustments as are necessary as he proceeds through the grades.

*Are Habits of Eating Important in the Development of Personality?*² A very original and interesting thesis is developed in the recent publication of Dr. Abigail Eliot, who is well-known to readers of this magazine as secretary and treasurer of the National Association for Nursery Education.

She started out upon her investigation with the following questions in mind: "Thinking mothers, as well as those who are professionally interested in preschool education, deplore the situations which so often arise out of refusal of food because of their possible or even probable effect on the child's disposition. If a child is given his own way at one meal, he will demand it at the next. When this is repeated three or four times a day, and becomes a regular occurrence, does it influence the child's attitude toward other life situations? When food which is refused is forced and the scene which follows becomes a regular three-times-a-day affair, how does it affect the child's emotional life. Do some children have personality traits (either innate or acquired) which have a tendency to make them refuse food? To what extent, if any does refusal to eat affect personality or vice versa? Is there any carry-over from what is learned in the eating situation to behavior in other life situations?"

The data upon which this study is based were collected from observations of 69 children attending two nursery schools. The data consist of a series of teachers' judgments with respect to each child's condition and progress in four selected problems of behavior (eating,

² Eliot, Abigail A. "Eating Habits in Relation to Personality Development of Two- and Three-Year-Old Children." *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, Vol. XIII, No. 5, May, 1933. Pp. 399-481.

constructiveness, anger, and self-assertion), and of teachers' ratings of the children in 31 selected personality traits. The results were analyzed and compared, with careful correlations. The conclusions follow:

1. Of the 69 children studied the finicky eaters were rated probably significantly higher in these personality traits

1. Anger
2. Excitability
3. Moodiness
4. Self-expression
5. Desire for attention
6. Leadership

and probably significantly lower in seven personality traits than the non-finicky eaters

1. General health
2. Regard for the rights of others
3. Regard for authority
4. Emotional control
5. Intellectual control

6. Joy

7. Adjustment

Moreover the 13 children who were finicky and became non-finicky were rated lower when finicky than when non-finicky in eleven traits, and higher when finicky than when non-finicky in four traits.

2. The writer believes that good handling of the eating situation has a good effect upon mealtime behavior indicative of the traits found to be more marked in finicky eaters. She also believes that some generalization of personality traits exists, and that the handling of the eating situation may affect generalized traits such as self-assertion and self-control.
3. Finickiness in eating should not be considered as an isolated problem in child development, or as purely nutritional. It should be thought of as a problem often associated with other problems which are also significant in personality development.

Flight of Feet

Now that the morning glistens, and my daughter
 Raises a hand in challenge, and the narrow
 Flight of her feet, like pebbles skimming water—
 Now that the river drops a silver arrow—
 I shall be swift to follow, as the swifter
 Shadows of clouds that she has sought to race;
 And when we reach the river I shall lift her,
 And she shall see her own enchanted face.

MARION STROEBEL, in *Lost City*. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin.)



(Continued from page 229)

ing? And how often are students examined on their skill in this field? There need be no reason for surprise, therefore, when discussions prove so fruitless. Someday, how-

ever, the student's method of study will be given proper rank. Then, discussion, which is only an applicative of the ability to think straight, can be expected to have a valuable outcome.

Tell us of your Professional Interests and Needs

●

THE ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION wants to be of real service to its members through the two bulletins which are published annually and sent free to all contributing members. In order better to understand the professional needs of nursery, kindergarten, and primary teachers, the Committee on Sales and Publications is asking each subscriber to CHILDHOOD EDUCATION to take time to make the suggestions asked for below and mail them to Headquarters.

1. Suggest *subjects* you would like to have chosen for or included in future bulletins of the Association for Childhood Education.

2. Make suggestions regarding the physical form and literary style of future bulletins.

3. Suggest means for increasing the sales of publications of the Association for Childhood Education. (See pages 47-48 of the 1933 Yearbook for list of publications available.)

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Journal of the
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NURSERY—ELEMENTARY

With the Cooperation of

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR NURSERY EDUCATION

MARCH, 1934

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Understanding the Child

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